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An Opinion As To Location
Of The Speech and Hearing Science Area

Editorial . . . HERBERT J. OYER

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An Opinion as to Location of The Speech and Hearing Science Area

Editorial

Nearly everyone who has specialized in speech and hearing science has at one time or another engaged in informal debates or discussions or, at least, has considered the topic of the proper or ideal location of the speech and hearing scientist within the university framework. For the most part these specialists are members of the faculties of departments of speech in colleges and universities throughout the United States. This location is not accidental.

Speech and hearing scientists are concerned with the spoken word, and man's hearing and interpretation of the word. Their real interest is to extend scientific knowledge concerning the phenomena of speech and hearing of man. And, happily enough, they find their knowledge and skill can often aid those who cannot communicate effectively because of disordered mechanisms—consequently the establishment of the functional unit known as the speech and/or hearing clinic.

It can be said that other areas of the department of speech have long been vitally concerned with the spoken word, and the hearing and interpretation of it—long before the time of the speech and hearing science area. Some approach the field historically, others in terms of the practical applications of speech. Others approach speech from an artistic or aesthetic point of view and others in terms of education of teachers. The point is, that regardless of the area of the department in which the "speech-man" is located, he is concerned with a stimulus, a medium for transmission of that stimulus, the reception of the stimulus, and the effects the stimulus has on the receiver. The stimulus might be a line from Shakespeare, a profound statement of Aristotle, a commercial pitch for a seltzer company or a spondee test word.

Some have advocated that the speech and hearing science area be placed in a hospital setting, for example in a department of otolaryngology, since this medical speciality is primarily concerned with pathological aspects of the speech and hearing mechanism. This professional atmosphere with close association to our medical and dental consultants can be attractive and rewarding. Others suggest that the department of education (particularly special education) is the logical setting, in that so much of the training in speech and hearing therapy is to prepare students who will one day be speech and hearing therapists in the public schools. And there are those who propose that since the speech and hearing science activities are so closely akin to those of the linguist, the activity should be carried out in the department of linguistics. And of course, since speech and hearing are aspects of human behavior, some have felt that the logical environment would be that provided by a department of psychology. Perhaps any or all of these locations would provide an appropriate environment in which the activities of interest to the speech and hearing scientist could be successfully pursued.

Certainly anyone who understands the work of the speech and hearing scientist will agree that he needs a thorough background of training in many different disciplines, for speech, with its measurable physical and social dimensions is the end-product of the working of a number of bodily systems as well as environmental influences. Just because the training is interdisciplinary in nature, there really is no reason for confusion as to our professional address. While we are a professional group, we are first and foremost "speech people"—interested in extending the horizons with respect to psycho-physical study of speech and hearing in man, the symbolic code in spoken form, transmission of the code, and its reception and consequent effects.

It is difficult at times to see the need for the apparent confusion that seems to characterize those in some quarters who scratch their heads and philosophically pose the question, "Who are we?",—"Where do we belong." Granted, no one will deny that it is wise to search the soul occasionally for the purpose of justifying one's position. But quite frankly, as one who is trained in speech and hearing science, and is engaged in teaching, research and clinical activities, I think *I know who I am professionally*. I am a person uniquely trained in the art and science of speech and hearing—not a physician—not a linguist—not a special educator—not an engineer. And when contemplating optimum location within the university structure, if intellectually honest, I must confess that the department of speech seems to be the logical place for me to hang my hat and give expression to my interests. The medical and dental consultants, the special educators, the linguists and the communication engineers are my treasured colleagues and friends. We all have certain overlapping academic interests. However, it is with the scholars of rhetoric, drama, broadcasting, and speech education that I find those with whom I share a common core of knowledge although each is approaching it from different points of view and with different goals. These last are my blood-brothers and we belong together.

HERBERT J. OYER, *Associate Editor*

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EDGAR L. LOWELL, GORDON TAAFFE, and GEORGINA RUSHFORD
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Personality Characteristics and the Speech Therapist.....CONRAD WEDBERG
Speech Correction in California.....J. J. THOMPSON
Communication Problems in Counseling.....C. DONALD NELSON

Authors in This Issue

Robert L. Smith, Instructor of Speech and Director of Debate at Hope College, is the author of *NFL: A Perversion of Values*. He received the Bachelor of Science degree in 1956, and the Master of Arts degree in 1957, from Bowling Green State University. During the academic year of 1957-58 he was Director of Forensics and Dramatics at Port Clinton (Ohio) High School where he also served as advisor to the local NFL chapter.

Rudolf Dreikurs, author of *Communication Within the Family*, received his medical degree in 1923 from the University of Vienna. He is currently in the area of Psychiatry at the Chicago Medical School. His recent publications include: *Psychology in the Classroom*, Harper and Brothers, (1957); "Do Teachers Understand Children," *School and Society*, Volume 87, (1959); "The Cultural Implications of Reward and Punishment," *International Journal of Social Psychiatry*, Volume 4 (1958); "Raising Children in a Democracy," *The Humanist*, Number 2 (1958). Dr. Dreikurs is currently the Vice-President of the American Academy of Psychotherapists.

Lionel Crocker, first editor of the *Central States Speech Journal*, authored *Sir William Osler, M.D., The Public Speaker*. Dr. Crocker, Chairman of the Department of Speech at Denison University, was the thirty-seventh President of the Speech Association of America. The University of Michigan granted him three degrees: Bachelor of Arts, Master of Arts and Doctor of Philosophy. Lionel Crocker ranks among the fifteen most frequent contributors to the journals of the Speech Association of America.

Which Radio Stations Make Better Profits? was authored by *Joseph M. Ripley II*. He is Associate Director of Broadcasting Services at Southern Illinois University. The Ohio State University granted him the Master of Arts degree in 1953. Professor Ripley is a member of the Advisory staff of the *Central States Speech Journal*.

Charles L. Balcer is the author of *The Vocal Aspect of Delivery Traced Through Representative Works in Rhetoric and Public Speaking—Aristotle to Rush*. He is Professor of Speech and Director of Communication in the Division of Languages and Literature at St. Cloud State College. Degrees received include: Bachelor of Science, State Teachers College, Winona, Minn. (1942); Master of Arts, State University of Iowa (1949); and Doctor of Philosophy, State University of Iowa (1954). His recent publications include: "Evaluation in the Speech Class—Growth in Desirable Attitudes," *Central States Speech Journal*, Spring, 1958; "Fundamentals of Speech; A Basic Course for High Schools" (co-author), *The Speech Teacher*, March, 1959. Dr. Balcer is a past president of the Central States Speech Association. Also, he was the first chairman of the CSSA Teacher Award Committee. Other committee assignments include Legislative Assembly from CSSA area of SAA, Rules Committee, and Advisory Council of the SAA Legislative Assembly. In 1958, he was elected to *Who's Who In the Midwest*.

Kim Giffin, author of *A Conceptual Basis for Experimental Studies in Discussion*, is Head of the Speech Division, Department of Speech and Drama, University of Kansas, Lawrence. He received his Doctor of Philosophy degree from the State University of Iowa in 1950. His recent publications include: "A Study of the Criteria Employed by Tournament Debate Judges," *Speech Monographs*, March (1959); and "Discussion Contests Versus Group Action Tournaments" (with Wayne Brockriede) which appeared in the February, 1959, *Quarterly Journal of Speech*. Dr. Giffin is Governor of the Midwest Forensic Association and Executive Secretary of the Research Committee for the SAA Interest Group in Discussion and Group Methods. In June, 1959, he completed five years of editorship of the *Central States Speech Journal*.

Betty Ann Wilson, author of *Brainstorming as a Teaching Technique for Training Speech Therapists*, is an Associate Professor of Speech and Education at Purdue University. She received the Bachelor of Arts degree from Grinnell (1943), the Master of Arts from Indiana University (1948), and the Doctor of Philosophy degree from Purdue University (1953). Her recent publications include "Specific Techniques for Teaching Sounds," *The Speech and Hearing Therapist*, April, 1959, and "The Development and Evaluation of a Speech Improvement Program for Kindergarten Children," *Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders*, March, 1954.

Anthony Hillbruner is an Associate Professor of Speech in the Department of Speech and Drama of Los Angeles State College. Northwestern University granted him the Bachelor of Science degree in 1949, the Master of Arts in 1950 and the Doctor of Philosophy in 1953. *Invention and Ethos: The Metamorphosis of Alexander Hamilton* is the title of his article appearing in this issue. Among his recent publications are *The Rhetorical Critic's Role in Society* appearing in the February, 1958, *Quarterly Journal of Speech* and *Frances Wright Egalitarian Reformer* appearing in the Summer, 1958, *Southern Speech Journal*. Dr. Hillbruner is a member of the Committee on Public Address and the Legislative Assembly of the Western Speech Association. He is Chairman of the Interdivisional Committee on American Studies at Los Angeles State College.

James C. Kelly, author of *A Survey For Speech And Hearing Defectiveness*, is Associate Professor of Speech at the University of Illinois. Dr. Kelly received the Bachelor of Arts degree from Indiana State Teachers College in 1931; the Master of Arts degree from Northwestern University in 1935; the Doctor of Philosophy degree from Purdue University in 1948. His recent articles include: "The Classroom Communication Test in a Voice and Articulation Course", *The Speech Teacher*, IV, March, 1955, and "A Summer Residential Program in Hearing Education", *Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders*, 19, March, 1954.

The fourth appearance of BOOKS places the emphasis on debate texts. John T. Rickey, guest author, is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Speech at Purdue University. Dr. Rickey received the Bachelor of Science degree in 1942 and the Master of Arts degree in 1951 from Kent State University. The Doctor of Philosophy degree was granted by the Ohio State University in 1955. Dr. Rickey is currently the editor of *The Register*.

REFLECTIONS FROM THE RETIRED makes its fourth appearance with James M. O'Neill writing *Retire to Active Life*. Professor James M. O'Neill, retired Chairman of the Department of Speech of Brooklyn College, was the first President of the Speech Association of America. (See picture and additional information with article.)

NFL: A Perversion of Values

ROBERT L. SMITH
HOPE COLLEGE

The author examines the National Forensic League's overemphasis on "winning", and points out how, in four respects, this "winning" philosophy is educationally unsound. He concludes by suggesting several ways to remedy these weaknesses of the NFL.

Those who worry because they sometimes confuse the National Forensic League with the National Football League need not feel befuddled. Their mistake is justifiable. Their perplexity probably stems from the recollection of the March, 1958, issue of *The Rostrum*, the official publication of the National Forensic League. The young man on the cover of *The Rostrum* is not Johnny Unitas; rather, it is an NFL debater dreaming about "winning" that beautiful, big first place trophy. This cover picture epitomizes the primary objective of both National Leagues.

This objective of the National Forensic League — the extreme emphasis on "winning"—deserves careful scrutiny. The purpose of this article is to show, first, that the National Forensic League overemphasizes "winning"; second, that this "winning" philosophy manifests itself in educationally unsound practices; and, third, that there are several guiding principles which would remedy this situation.

To substantiate the charge of overemphasis on "winning", as symbolized on the *Rostrum* cover, one needs only to examine the system of points and degrees of membership used by the National Forensic League. It is designed chiefly to motivate students to "win" decisions in debate and first place in individual events in tournaments. For a debater's initial "win" he receives nine points; "... for the

next win, eight; then seven, six, five, and all thereafter, four."¹ Non-decision and "losing" debates are worth only two points each to the debater. Paradoxically, the NFL aspirant, or member, unless he holds the Degree of Distinction and has therefore accumulated 250 points, receives fewer points for a speech before an audience than he does for "winning" in a tournament. In fact, the debater whose point total is less than seventy-five is credited with two points for "losing" a decision debate, and only one point for addressing an audience. This point system further illustrates that the National Forensic League regards "winning" as its most important aim.

To assert that "winning" has no place at all in forensic activities is not intended. However, this goal must always be a secondary and not a primary objective. N. Edd Miller has aptly pointed this out "No one would object to a debate team's efforts to win a debate, but when other worthwhile objectives in debating are lost sight of because of the overemphasis on winning, then a clearly unhealthy situation exists."² It appears that the National Forensic League has lost sight of or ignored these "other worthwhile objectives," not only through its promotion and handling of debate, but through its management of individual events as well. There are four major weaknesses en-

gendered by the NFL's overemphasis on "winning", each of which is the exact opposite of worthwhile objectives obtainable through forensics. These are: (1) the failure to encourage audience-centered *public* speaking; (2) the failure to require critic judges of tournament events to give either oral or written critiques; (3) the promotion of "bigness" of the interschool forensics programs; and (4) the inevitable encouragement of unethical tendencies among student participants.

The fact that the National Forensic League does not encourage audience-centered *public* speaking was mentioned in the discussion of its membership point system. In the NFL program, unless he cares little about earning a higher degree the quickest way possible, which is unlikely, a student is given a stronger incentive to speak in tournaments and contests than before audiences. The fallacy of this practice, in terms of sound speech pedagogy, is apparent. Rarely are there audiences present at tournaments, and

By disregarding the audience situation, the tourney not only fosters certain habits of rapid and unrealistic speaking which are ill suited for later speech situations, but it neglects what I consider the main educational purpose of debating. If we consider debating as training for citizenship in a democracy and accept the place of debate in the democratic process as explained in our textbooks, then the skillful debater must be able to influence others. Without an audience, I believe debate training is incomplete. Tourneys have a place in our forensic program just as they may have in our athletic programs, but let's not overemphasize them.³

Obviously, student speakers need to receive evaluation and criticism of their speeches in order for them to improve. But a critic judge at an NFL-sponsored contest makes neither an oral nor a written critique for the participants. And he is even discouraged from so doing! Thus, the concept of the critic judge of the National Forensic League is educationally indefensible, from that point of view also. Significantly, the more

likely though not admitted reason the "critic coaches" do not render either oral or written suggestions to student speakers is the fear — of all things — that it might just make better debaters of them. For, after all, such improvement may cause the "critic coach" to have his team lose in a future debate. This type of thinking again demonstrates the tragic distortion of values caused by the ever-present obsession with "winning" within the ranks of NFL.

For debate the critic judge merely writes "affirmative" or "negative" and puts his signature on the approximately 4" by 5" ballot; for individual events he simply ranks "1, 2, 3, etc.," and signs his name. Again, the emphasis is on *who won?*, and not on *how can the student improve himself as a speaker?* Tournaments may provide students practice in speaking, but as Braden and Brandenburg stressed,

Teacher and student should never lose sight of the fact that participation in classroom debates or in contests is valuable only as it prepares and trains students for intelligent, responsible, and effective group activity. These educational exercises have no value as ends in themselves. The test to apply to any of these activities is not who won but whether the debaters improved as a result of the experience.⁴

A third weakness of the National Forensic League resulting from its overemphasis on "winning" is its promotion of "bigness" in the forensics programs of its members. Coupled with the false notion that a win-lose record is the main criterion of achievement is this equally faulty premise that a big forensics program is a good one simply *because* it is big. Stimulating the trend toward bigness, and accentuating the high-powered competitive atmosphere of the NFL District and National Tournaments, are the Leading Chapter Awards that are presented". . . to the chapter which leads the district in total number of members and degrees enrolled since the League was founded."⁵

Frequently, issues of *The Rostrum* contain glowing accounts of various NFL schools that are carrying on

huge forensics programs. Such an article, entitled "Can You Top This?," was included in a recent issue.⁶ The article praised an NFL chapter for having sent twelve four man debate teams to five different tournaments on the same day, and concluded: "They debated in eighty-two rounds of competition and came home with sixty-six wins and sixteen losses. Not only that, but they participated in thirteen rounds of oratory and extemp and debated in only three audience debates."⁷

NFL's propensity to generate "bigness" of the interschool forensics programs is, of course, not in itself an evil. There could conceivably be large high schools which through the years have aroused much genuine interest in forensic activities. But the danger, as Douglas Ehninger cautioned a few years ago," . . . lies in the fact that it [the large program] may come to replace more fundamental values, or that the uncurbed desire to be 'big' will lead to a compromising of crucial values. Thus, instead of [the program] existing for the sake of the student, it may even happen that the student is exploited for the sake of the program."⁸

Since the National Forensic League places such a premium on "winning", it must bear some responsibility for the fact that some student speakers, in their understandable desire to "win", become modern sophists. With the pressure to "win" the coveted trophies, to attain points enough for a higher degree, or to increase their chapter's chances of winning the Leading Chapter Award, some students equivocate their ethical standards. Some of them manufacture and distort evidence, and some often rely on glib delivery to camouflage their deception. While judging a debate during a recent NFL District Tournament, the writer listened to a team base its entire case on a paragraph from a newspaper article which their opponents later pointed out had been lifted out of context. Such misguided students, because they seemingly are not directed otherwise, somehow ra-

tionalize by thinking that the only evil of employing such tricks is in getting caught.

This perversion of basic values comes from the desire to "win". Perhaps Elton Abernathy was thinking of NFL's zeal for victory when he wrote: "The debater is changed from a sincere student of speech into a 'debate bum,' trained in the tricks, fair or unfair, of winning, rather than in honest techniques of persuasive speaking."⁹

Now what can be done about this situation? Several possibilities for remedying the weaknesses which exist in the National Forensic League and its operation can be considered. First, the leaders and member coaches of NFL must conduct a searching examination of the job they are doing. Furthermore, this activity of re-evaluating the purposes, values and practices of the National Forensic League must be carried on constantly. A thorough appraisal of this kind should be followed by immediate modification of the policies and practices that are not in keeping with worthy educational goals and methods.

The NFL must completely revamp its membership point system so that audience-centered *public* speaking is emphasized to at least as great an extent as tournament speaking. In short, to correct the deficiencies described in this paper, the NFL should adopt and adhere to the joint recommendations of the North Central Association and the Speech Association of America which were presented in 1952. Specifically, the following recommendations of the NCA and the SAA would eliminate most of the undesirable manifestations of the NFL's overemphasis on "winning":

In all school debates, greater emphasis should be placed on the speakers' talking to an audience.

The types of awards, the method of awarding them, and the manner of presenting them should be carefully examined with a view to their educational and psychological implications.

To encourage the proper response, interscholastic meetings might well be

called *festivals* or *conferences* rather than contests.

The students' work may well be evaluated by the use of general categories such as superior, good, average.

Contestants should have the opportunity to learn the bases of the judge's or critic's evaluation of their work. Interscholastic meetings will attain their greatest value when participants and teachers ask first, "How can we improve?" not "Who won?"¹⁰

The influence of the National Forensic League is vast and far-reaching. Thousands of high school students are members of it during a period of their lives when they are maturing and establishing goals and values at a significant rate of development. If the leaders and member teachers of the National Forensic

League cannot recognize and accept the tremendous responsibility they bear, and if they cannot or will not take immediate steps to ameliorate the deplorable policies and practices of their organization, then others outside the organization may take action. The others might be the Speech Association of America, the National Association of Secondary School Principals, or the North Central Association. But the job must be done. NFL need not be detrimental to the student. It can be highly beneficial. When a sound philosophy is formulated and followed, *then and then only* can the National Forensic League advertise with genuine pride its motto: "Nation's Future Leaders."

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¹See *National Forensic League Chapter Manual*, (1957), p. 4.

²N. Edd Miller, "Some Modifications of Contest Debating," *The Speech Teacher*, II (March, 1953), p. 139.

³Brooks Quimby, "Debate Tournaments Appraised," *The Gavel*, XXXII (1950), p. 75.

⁴Waldo W. Braden and Earnest Brandenburg, *Oral Decision-Making*, (New York: Harper & Brothers, Publishers, 1955), p. 377.

⁵*NFL Chapter Manual*, (1957), p. 11.

⁶"Can You Top This?," *The Rostrum*, XXXII (January, 1958), p. 9.

⁷*Ibid.*, Italicized word inserted by the writer.

⁸Douglas Ehninger, "Six Earmarks of a Sound Forensics Program," *The Speech Teacher*, I (November, 1952), p. 241.

⁹Elton Abernathy, "The Criticism Against Speech Tournaments," *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XXVIII (October, 1942), p. 356.

¹⁰"Public Address in the Secondary School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, V. 36, (May, 1952), pp. 20-21. The paragraphing of the recommendations is the writer's.

Communication Within The Family

RUDOLF DREIKURS
CHICAGO MEDICAL SCHOOL

Communication in the contemporary American family has not broken down; it exists, but not always for beneficial purposes. Communication and cooperation are also indispensable for hostile interaction. Wherever two people have anything to do with each other, they communicate and cooperate fully, although it may be in their agreement to fight each other. Non-verbal communication is far more extensive and intensive than communication on the verbal level. Words are often used to conceal the meaning of actions, and in the case of conflicts, they become means of warfare. The democratic evolution with its concomitant process of equalization increases conflicts within the family; consequently, communication within the family consists to a large extent in mutual indications of the means best suited to defeat each other.

The purpose of my assignment is to discuss the breakdown of communication in the contemporary American family, its characteristics and its causes. The inability to communicate with each other, to understand each other and to make oneself understood, has frequently been described as an indication of a disturbed relationship.¹ The breakdown in communication is considered an early sign of warfare, long before it erupts openly in overt acts of hostility. For this reason, attempts have been made to re-establish communication and mutual understanding as a means of reconciliation, of settling conflicts and avoiding more violent conflagrations. It is assumed that being able to make people see eye to eye, to understand each other and to perceive the point of view of an opponent, means re-establishing the disrupted communication and moving toward cooperation and harmony.²

Consequently, the need to give serious consideration to what appears as a breakdown in communication between members of the family, and particularly between parents and chil-

dren, became more keenly felt. In many American families, communication seems almost lost or at least greatly restricted. Frequently parents and children do not see eye to eye, particularly so in cases of adolescents. Ever so often, the parents fail to impart to the children their ideas about the need to conform, to behave properly, to take on responsibilities. Whatever they say does not bring the desired results: the children either do not respond, or do not listen. And what *they* may have to say makes as little impression on their parents, so that they, the children, feel equally misunderstood.³

This lack of communication exists also between the siblings and very often equally between the parents. Endless arguments ensue about the simplest task or endeavor. Getting the children out of bed in the morning and to bed in the evening, inducing them to put their things away or to eat, not to mention to eat properly, poses an almost unsolvable assignment in which parent is pitched against parent, and either or both fighting a hopeless battle with their

children. Even in the most harmonious families, some areas of limited communication are evident.

Under these circumstances it is surprising that family life still exists and continues, that the breakdown of communication within the family has not succeeded in breaking up the family altogether. Whatever breakup occurs usually comes as separation of the parents. How is it possible that the close relationships, inherent in family living, continue despite an often almost complete lack of communication? Every close relationship requires cooperation, and this is impossible without constant communication. The question arises: If the members of the family fight with and oppose each other, have they really ceased to cooperate and to communicate?

The answer to this question can solve the puzzle of a family without apparent communication. The situation will appear in a new light if we stop using the terms "communication" and "cooperation" in the narrow sense in which they are usually understood. By general consensus, these terms are limited to an interaction which is positive, constructive, and beneficial. However, there is no justification for such limitation, since both terms relate to social mechanisms which are equally existent in a disturbed relationship. The disregard of the extent to which cooperation and communication exists and are necessary in warfare is greatly responsible for our incapacity to understand disturbed relationships and hostilities and to find ways and means to resolve them.

We fail to recognize the same mechanisms in both positive and social relationships because of a tendency to attribute each, the positive and the negative, to different qualities, attitudes, emotions, and personality traits. It was Adler⁴ who suggested that a switch from the useful to the useless side can be made without a change in direction, (wanting to be first, special, catered to). Nev-

ertheless, most people, including psychologists and educators, cannot perceive the same intent if it is no longer expressed in a socially acceptable manner; if destructive means are used, the constancy of goals is no longer recognized.

Let us take an example: Ambition. We speak usually about an ambitious child only when he tries hard to get ahead through studying, applying himself trying to improve himself and his status. When he becomes discouraged, he gives up constructive means of achieving prominence and switches to the useless side. His ambition continues, but it remains unnoticed by the average adult, parent or teacher. Little do they recognize that he may want to be the worst if he cannot be the best; or how proud he is of defeating all and causing trouble.

Many of our so-called juvenile delinquents suffer from a perverted sense of ambition. They want to be important, big, impressive, and do not know how to achieve these ends with constructive means. Even the child who gives up altogether the effort to study or to apply himself may be prompted to do so by his over-ambition; if he can't be the first, then there is no sense in trying at all. The same over-ambition is found in all the various forms of behavior; but it is not recognized. Therefore, few speak of ambition in children unless it is evidenced in a positive way. Obviously, this limited use of the term is inadequate, no, even dangerous, since it precludes the recognition of the basic motivation behind destructive or deficient behavior.

A similar situation exists in regard to communication and cooperation. They are recognized only if they occur in a positive sense, as beneficial and helpful forms of interaction; they are usually not perceived as indispensable for hostile interaction as well. I have previously pointed out⁵ that cooperation has to be understood in a much broader

sense. When we look carefully, we can see that all people cooperate fully with each other. Every relationship, regardless of its kind and pattern, requires such cooperation. Unless two people agree about the way in which they intend to treat each other, they could not deal with each other. Any real divergence of intentions can only be shortlived. Before long, they must agree on something—even if it is to disagree. Otherwise, they would only agree to avoid each other, which is the only open path in a relationship where mutual consent has not been established. Whatever happens between them is the result of their decision about their relationship. Their agreement may not be useful to either of them or to anyone else; and they may not be aware of such decision,⁵ which is usually the case.

We are so accustomed to call cooperation only an agreement of mutual help and support that we are blinded to the extent to which cooperation is also necessary when we want to fight, to hurt, to be right and prove the other wrong, to dominate or to take advantage. No one could do so without the full voluntary consent of his partner, at least in our democratic setting. There are few exceptions where physical force still can be used successfully to subdue and coerce, although Ghandi's non-violent resistance opens the door for dealing effectively even with tyrants. Today, every victim is so by his own consent, although he is usually utterly unaware of his decision to play this role under existing conditions.

This is an extremely important fact which is rather difficult to perceive. It implies that nobody really can blame anyone else for what he does, but has to recognize fully his own responsibility. This is one of the most distasteful obligations which free men have to accept. Therefore, they prefer to attribute their own circumstances to others rather than seeing their participation in the dirty games in which they become in-

involved. No relationship can continue in kind if one refuses to play his corresponding role. Consequently, the term cooperation would require considerable reconsideration and redefinition. Cooperation is the basis of *all* human relationships, be they positive or negative, friendly or hostile.

The same is true for communication. Wherever two people have anything to do with each other, they communicate fully! (This is not entirely true for psychotics.) This communication takes place, however, only to a small extent on the verbal level. Non-verbal communication⁶ is by far more extensive and intensive than that conveyed through words. And the logical and factual content of words is far less significant than other aspects of speech: intonation, inflection, volume, speed and other characteristics of the spoken word and sentence. They usually convey more information than the content.

It is at this point that the significance of communication is usually misunderstood. Many concern themselves primarily with the meaning of words. Actually, words are not always used to communicate the meaning as defined in dictionaries. Speech does not always have the purpose of communicating the meaning which the words imply. But rarely does any verbal or non-verbal expression fail to reveal its meaning; therefore, it usually constitutes *effective* communication. Whatever we do or say expresses our attitude and intent and is, to a large extent, perceived and understood as such by those around us, often without realizing it. Misunderstandings are possible, of course. But the consequence of a misunderstanding depends on the existing relationship. If it is friendly, then efforts will be made to clarify the difference. In the case of hostility and antagonism, misunderstandings will serve well to increase both.

Words are as often used to conceal the meaning of our action as to convey it. No clarification of the "meaning" of the words can explain

or change the purpose for which they are used. In order to understand another, one has to perceive the other as a whole person and not merely listen to what he says. The true meaning of his actions and approaches can be understood only within the total field of action, when we sense the "private logic" on which he operates, and not merely hear the logic of his spoken words.

This ability to "listen with the third ear"⁷ or the ability to "read between the lines" is a prerequisite for understanding each other. We all need this ability to get along, although we are not always as fortunate as Siegfried in Wagner's Opera of the same name. In a remarkable scene the deceptive use of words is demonstrated. Mime, the dwarf, reared Siegfried so that he could use him to kill the dragon who protected the hoard (the treasure he had collected). After Siegfried killed the dragon he licked the blood from his finger. This enabled him to understand what man usually cannot, such as the voices of the birds. And this special sense of perception made him realize what Mime really meant when he offered him a drink with sweet words. While Mime sings in the most endearing way, apparently using innocuous, friendly words, Siegfried understands that he wants to put him to sleep with the drink in order to kill him. When Siegfried expresses surprise at such intention, Mime is offended. How could he be so "misunderstood?" And he continues in the sweetest way, apparently expressing his deepest devotion. However, Siegfried perceives that he wants to cut his head off. Naturally, Siegfried refuses the drink.

If we do not limit our concepts of communication to the logical meaning of words, and it seems we are obliged not to do so, then it is obvious that a "breakdown of communication" is impossible. We impress each other constantly with our intentions, be it with words, without them, or despite the literal meaning

of our words. For this reason, the real understanding between people is based on the apperception of each one's goals and intentions. (This teleo-analytic approach is characteristic of Adlerian Psychology which understands behavior as purposive).⁸ Words, in this sense, have to be analyzed from the viewpoint of the purpose which they serve. Similarly, confusion and misunderstandings can be recognized as meaningful, in no way hindering communication but rather serving some negative purpose which is well communicated and, therefore, usually highly effective. Naturally, the effect does not promote harmony, but justifies and intensifies conflict.

We are now prepared to analyze the kind of communication which takes place in our families when they outwardly give the appearance of a breakdown in communication. It is obvious that such apparent breakdown is not the cause of the conflict but rather an essential part of it. From where do the conflicts arise which plague the modern family, particularly in the United States? It has been far too little realized that they are the consequence of a democratic evolution, which deprives adults of their traditional power over children.⁹ Democratic evolution means increasing equality. As other heretofore dominant groups (nobility, whites, management, etc.) lost their power over the previously subjugated counter-part, so men lost their power over women and adults over children. Women and children gained a degree of equality and self-determination which they have never before enjoyed in all known history. They no longer are willing to submit, but are always afraid of being forced to do so. As a consequence, the eternal war between the sexes and the war between the generations, which resulted from the inequality in the relationship between them, broke into the open. The ensuing struggle for power and status penetrates our families. Neither men and women, nor

parents and children, have the skill and knowledge to live with each other as equals, since our autocratic tradition has not prepared them for such a task, nor provides them with any guide post for solving conflicts on the basis of equality, i.e.; of mutual respect.¹⁰

The conflicts within our families reflect this war between the sexes and between the generations. Our competitive atmosphere intensifies the struggle of each member of the family for status, if possible through some form of superiority and power. Each one is afraid that the other may take advantage of him or, what is even worse, appear superior. One can well understand the goals which each one sets for himself in this situation.

The strongest influence in each family is usually exerted by the mother. Taking care of the family is *her* responsibility as a rule. At the same time, American women are determined not to be inferior to men, although they still like to look up to a superior male—a sad inner contradiction, on which many marriages are wrecked. In many instances, mothers try to prove how right they are, feeling victimized by insensitive husbands and irresponsible children. The fathers, in turn, want to save whatever masculine superiority they can muster, either by withdrawing into business, sports, or politics, or merely behind a newspaper. The children, in turn, accept gleefully mother's sense of responsibility by refusing to take on any for themselves. They use mother's determination to make a success of her marriage and of her motherhood, by putting her in their service. In case the parents have any notion that they can subdue the child and make him conform, behave, study, or contribute, the child is well prepared to involve the parents in a power contest in which he has the greater resources. This is the characteristic conflict situation in our families. The children use a great variety of means to get power, revenge, or to withdraw. In this way they can

defeat the parents who assume that they should be able to compel the child to behave or learn or contribute.

One can easily imagine what kind of communication ensues with the various protagonists within the family pursuing their own goals and manipulating all the other members of the family to "cooperate" with them in such pursuit. It is actually a sign of human ingenuity that each can achieve so much agreement in a most intricate pattern of interactions without really being aware of what he is doing, and nevertheless can accomplish his end with extreme efficiency. Examples can be found on almost any average day in any average American family, beginning early in the morning and ending when the children finally are quiet in bed, unless they choose to use the night as an additional area of interaction.

A typical instance of this is the so-called dependent child. He plays weak and helpless in order to get constant attention from his mother. She in turn is more than willing to do for him what he could do for himself, because this gives her an opportunity to impress the child and herself with her importance, and at the same time, with his deficiency. He is satisfying her needs for importance and superiority and she his desire for service.

During one day's time they give each other innumerable signals to move into action in their well-defined and assigned roles. The child gives his mother a chance to show how good and responsible she is, and she in turn, gives him the attention and service he wants. Each one knows very well the signs to which the other one responds, and neither misses any cue. Let us give an example which—in innumerable variations—can be found in almost any family.

It was a quiet street in a suburb, on a sunny noon. A little girl played alone on the sidewalk, when the observer, a woman passing by, approached. At that moment a third

floor window opened and a woman called, "Mary, come up, lunch is ready." Nothing happened. The observer stopped, intrigued by this incident, and decided to watch and see what would happen. Shortly afterwards, the woman appeared again at the window and again called, "Mary, come up, lunch is ready." Again, nothing happened. So the observer waited, even more intrigued. A third time the woman appeared at the window, calling Mary to come up for lunch. When nothing happened again, the observer approached the little girl and asked her whether her name was Mary. The girl looked up, without interrupting her play and said, "Yes Mam." "And was that your mother?" "Yes Mam." "Didn't you hear what she said?" "Oh yes Mam." "And why did you not go up?" "Oh, Mommy hasn't yelled yet."

Now let us examine this episode. Was there communication between mother and child or not? From outside appearance it was lacking. Mary did not pay any attention to what Mother said; the meaning of her words was utterly lost. It seemed that mother could not make herself understood in her desire to have Mary come up. Therefore, we can speak about a breakdown of communication if we merely adhere to the meaning of the words which was lost in the interaction. Actually, however, it was a perfect example of well-understood communication. Mother did not really expect Mary to come up before she yelled; she probably never comes after the first call. And Mary understood very well that Mother was not expecting her yet. It would have been quite possible for Mother to communicate to her child, even without yelling, that she meant it when she called first. And Mary would have understood if Mother had changed her customary approach, calling her in a different way, indicating she had better come up or else, (implying punishment if Mother is not familiar with modern approaches, or logical

consequences if she is.) As it was, both had apparently agreed that the first few calls were meaningless, some kind of forewarning which was not to be taken seriously. Of course, Mother was utterly unaware of such an "agreement," although she acted according to it.

The real issue was not the lunch, nor the coming up for lunch. It was the attention Mary demanded and Mother was willing to provide. The interaction between mother and child can only be understood when one realizes the role which each plays. The child is not willing to do anything unless she gets considerable amount of service and attention. She must be called several times, understanding very well what Mother says, but waiting for more attention on her part. And mother, being good and considerate, is willing to spend time and effort in giving the attention. She communicates to the child exactly how far she is willing to go. The yelling indicates the termination of the game to which the child is perfectly willing to consent. Therefore, there is no lack of communication whatsoever to be found in this interaction, if we for a moment forget the meaning of the spoken word and merely consider its function.

It is as difficult to stop a child from doing mischief in order to get mother's attention as it is to stop her from falling for his provocations. The words spoken by either are insignificant; they are merely props to stimulate the other one in his anticipated endeavors. A child in a power contest is honor-bound to do what he is told *not* to do, and to refuse to do what is asked. Everyone can clearly see that, if he is willing. It is not surprising that the parents usually 'do not see it, because if they did, they could no longer participate in the game. Therefore, they continue to tell him what he should do, every day newly surprised that he does not do it. Or they may ask him to stop what he his doing, knowing very well that he won't. If either

would change the customary behavior, the game of fencing, of trying to overpower and defeat each other, would come to an end. Then they would be obliged to establish a new relationship. This they cannot do by themselves without help and instruction. First of all, they would not know what else to do. The child who would obey would feel utterly lost, and the parents who would stop trying to overpower him would also lose face and their sense of worth and usefulness. Each one keeps the other going in the direction which he has chosen for himself and each fulfills the other's demands in a complementary partnership.

It is a mistake to assume that parents are entirely responsible for the children's behavior. This would give them credit where they do not deserve it. It is probable that the children, in their mistaken ideas about themselves and their chances to find a place in the group, often induce the parents to react as they do. One can assume that in any relationship both parties work together to reach the final pattern of interactions. It is done by trial and error. Since neither party is aware of what he is doing to the other, neither is in a position to choose his approach "deliberately." Each manages very well however, to signal his expectations to the other.

The communication system usually functions to an unbelievable degree of accuracy. Children are particularly well equipped to size up the adults with one glance and to know what to expect from them. If the adult, parent or teacher, makes up his mind to respond in a different way, the child often instantaneously perceives such a change of mind and adjusts his approach. Again, this does not occur with full awareness. We respond impulsively to each other, fulfilling the expectations of those to whom we are exposed. Children exhibit greater vitality, ingenuity, spontaneity, and cleverness and therefore succeed much faster and more

efficiently in inducing the adults to behave as they expect. However, in fairness to the adults one must admit that they succeed more often than it seems because their verbally expressed expectations of the child are often not identical with their *actual* expectations. They may believe in their sincerity if they tell their child they expect him to succeed; they would like to expect success, but actually do not anticipate it. And it is this anticipation of a child's failure which often induces it. In this sense, then, parents do communicate their expectations to the child more frequently than they know.

The accuracy of the communication which exists between a misbehaving child and the adult is startling. We can distinguish four goals of a disturbing or deficient normal child. Every child tries to belong; but if he becomes discouraged, as all our children do, he develops wrong ideas about his possibilities to find his place. Then he (1) either tries to get attention and service, finding his place through what he can get; or, (2) he tries to demonstrate his own power if the parents attempt to stop forcefully his demand for attention. If he feels completely beaten down and disliked, then he may try (3) to get even, to hurt as he feels hurt, as his only means to make himself count. If he is utterly discouraged and expects nothing but failure, then he (4) may flaunt real or assumed deficiencies in order to be left alone, thereby avoiding more painful evidence of his worthlessness.

The children are not aware of the purpose in their misbehavior; nevertheless they are very systematic in achieving their end. The adults are also completely unaware, in most cases, of the child's purpose in misbehaving, and consequently succumb to the child's provocation. The child does not appeal to their logic, but to their emotions; and this appeal is usually done skillfully and effectively. It is the evoked emotion in the adult

which corresponds to the child's goal and makes the adult such an easy victim. When the parent feels annoyed, he is inclined to communicate this annoyance either by scolding, advising, admonishing, or coaxing. Little does he realize that in doing so, he is merely following the child's direction and demands, namely to give special attention. On the other hand, when the parent is provoked, feeling that he cannot let the child "do that to him," then he not only invites the child to show him that he can, but also becomes inveigled in a power contest in which the child is usually not the loser.

When the parent feels deeply hurt and cannot understand how anyone could be so mean, then he only responds to the child's intentions, namely to be hurt. And, as a rule, he retaliates and thereby provokes the child to hurt even further. And when the adult, parent or teacher, feels like throwing up his arms in despair because he does not know what to do with the child, then he merely responds to the child's desire to be left alone. Many children convince the adults that they are incapable, and induce them to treat them in such a way that both become more convinced of their inability.

Each relationship is a closed system, in which the responses to one stimulus are the stimuli to the next response of the same kind. There is no corrective feedback possible since both parties have agreed on the premises of their interaction, on the purpose of each individual act, fitting into the pattern of their definite, although unconscious, agreement.

The most important question concerns possible solutions. While our families can well continue with the established patterns of relationships, giving each member victories and defeats, satisfaction and frustrations, this kind of equilibrium is naturally too expensive, both for the individuals concerned and for society as a whole. Families fail to develop the qualities in children which they need

for healthy and satisfactory living. Suffering is the price which all pay for their inability to live peacefully with each other in a democratic setting of mutual respect. It is mandatory that parents learn to use methods of raising children which have been proven effective. Without familiarity with new approaches, they are no match for their children and in no position to guide them, since they have lost the position of power and authority.

An essential part of the retraining of parents consists of extricating them from the undue demands of their children. Only after they have stopped providing unnecessary and harmful services, ceased taking on responsibility which the children should discharge but impose on them, refused to involve themselves in a power contest and being defeated in it, only then can the parents exert constructive influences and take effective steps in dealing with their children. This implies in fact a temporary *disruption of communication*. The signals from the children, which succeeded in provoking ill-advised reactions in the parents, must first be rendered ineffective. Then the way is open to re-establish communication for different purposes.

There are ways to establish a better and more productive "understanding" between all members of the family. They can be made aware of their present form of detrimental cooperation through counseling. They also can get together in a "family council" to discuss their common problems. The atmosphere in many families is not conducive to open and frank discussion. The greatest obstacle is the reluctance of everyone to listen to the others. This reluctance is quite meaningful and understandable if the relationship is devoted to struggle and mutual defeat. Seeing the point of view of the opponent would weaken one's own determination to win, to make the other do what one wants. The mere fact of listening to each other with-

out arguing affects the relationship — because now they are willing to work together toward a real understanding of each other instead of using each other as sparring partners. The beneficial effects of a frank talk lies not so much in the growing realization about how the others feel, but in the willingness to sit down together to find solutions. Naturally, everyone engulfed in the subtle or open struggles which family life so often provides, wants a solution, would like to live in peace. But each one thinks only about what the others should do, considering himself a victim and not an active participant in the creation of the difficulties.

This brings us to the final point, the significance of talk within our present family structure. A large portion of all verbal communications are

not devoted to any constructive purpose. Words are used to accuse and to defend, to criticize and to strike back. What is said is usually offensive and provocative; how it is said reflects the purpose. Talk as a means to convey ideas can only be used outside of a conflicting situation. It presupposes that the other is willing to listen, which is usually not the case in a fight. To reestablish language as a means of communication within the family would require the avoidance of talk whenever conflicts arise. This is a difficult lesson to learn for everyone, particularly for mothers. It is an essential lesson, however, if words are to be instruments of positive and constructive communication in the service of harmony and peaceful living.

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Sir William Osler, M.D., The Public Speaker

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The speech curriculums in our liberal arts colleges today usually have a course entitled "Business and Professional Speaking." Such courses are predicated on the assumption that men and women going into business and professional life will give a better account of themselves and be of more value to society if they are able to speak effectively. An example of a cultured professional man, who spoke with unusual acceptance, was Sir William Osler, who became Regius Professor of Medicine at Oxford University after holding chairs in the medical schools of McGill, Pennsylvania, and Johns Hopkins. The student of business and professional speaking may learn many lessons from Sir William.

In the first place Sir William found his speech fortune in his own backyard. When called upon for occasional lectures, he looked around him and discovered subjects for lectures that involved his interest in medicine and literature. We find him lecturing on "John Keats, the Apothecary Poet," "Oliver Wendell Holmes," of whom Osler said, [He was] "the most successful combination the world has even seen of physician and man of letters," John Locke as a Physician," "William Pepper," "Alfred Stille," "Sir Thomas Browne," "Harvey and His Discovery," and "Physic and Physicians in Plato." Sir William in his addresses showed that a physician could be a well read man. Osler felt a kinship with all men, past and present, who had studied medicine. For example, he bought Astruc's *Study of Genesis* because Astruc had been a physician in the first half of the 18th century. Today as a medical man Astruc is forgotten, but theologians remember him as forerunner of modern biblical criticism. In this indirect way Osler became interested in the study of the Bible and theological questions. His advice on the reading habits of the

medical student reveals his own practice. If he had not been a professor of medicine, he might have been a professor of English literature.

For the hard working medical student it is perhaps easiest to keep up an interest in literature. Let each subject in your year's work have a corresponding outside author. When tired of anatomy refresh your mind with Oliver Wendell Holmes; after a worrying subject in physiology turn to the great idealists, to Shelley or Keats for consolation; when chemistry distresses your soul, seek peace in the great pacifier, Shakespeare; and when the complications of pharmacology are unbearable the minutes with Montaigne will lighten the burden. To the writings of one old physician I can urge your closest attention. There have been and, happily, there are still in our ranks notable illustrations of the intimate relations between medicine and literature, but in the group of literary physicians Sir Thomas Browne stands pre-eminent. The *Religio Medici*, one of the great English classics, should be in the hands—in the hearts too—of every medical student.

When Sir William died his friends placed a copy of the first edition of *Religio Medici* on his bier; this classic was his special love and he made a hobby of collecting the many editions of it.

Not only his reading but his prac-

tice of medicine provided him with materials for his occasional addresses. At the request of a colleague, who was an admirer of Walt Whitman, Dr. Osler went over from Philadelphia to Camden to make a professional call on the gray poet. The doctor found Walt in a room cluttered with books and papers, and in recording an account of his visit gives us this interesting physician's description. Note the use of the classical allusion, "a Scythian visitor at Delphi," and the descriptive phrase, "hirsute canopy," both keys to his literary style.

With a large frame, and well-shaped, well poised head, covered with a profusion of snow-white hair, which mingled on the cheeks with a heavy long beard and moustache, Walt Whitman in his 65th year was a fine figure of a man who had aged beautifully, or more properly speaking majestically. The eyebrows were thick and shaggy, and the man seemed lost in a hirsute canopy. I knew nothing of Walt Whitman and had never read a line of his poems — a Scythian visitor at Delphi That evening at the Club after dinner I opened the volume of "Leaves of Grass" for the first time. Whether the meat was too strong, or whether it was the style of cooking — 'twas not for my pampered palate, accustomed to Plato and Shakespeare and Keats.

Nevertheless Sir William made this episode pay off, when he was teaching at Oxford University, with a lecture on Walt Whitman which he delivered to Sir Walter Raleigh's classes in English literature.

Another lesson the professional man may learn from the experience of Sir William's speaking is that he always accepted, if he possibly could, every opportunity to speak. He had been invited to Yale University in 1913 primarily to give the Silliman lectures on "The Evolution of Modern Medicine," a series which shows encyclopedic knowledge of the field of medicine. (His textbook *The Principles and Practice of Medicine* went through eight editions and more than 100,000 copies were sold. It was translated into French, Chinese, German and Spanish.) One might think

that this Silliman engagement was sufficient to tax his time and energy, but he found time at Yale to take on other speaking tasks. He graciously accepted an invitation to preach a lay sermon to the students, the widely quoted "A Way of Life." A few years ago *The Reader's Digest* reprinted the following analogy from this sermon:

I stood on the bridge of one of the great liners, ploughing the ocean at 25 knots. "She is alive," said my companion, "in every plate; a huge monster with brain and nerves, an immense stomach, a wonderful heart and lungs, and a splendid system of locomotion." Just at that moment a signal sounded, and all over the ship the watertight compartments were closed. "Our chief factor of safety," said the Captain. "In spite of the *Titanic*," I said. "Yes," he replied, "in spite of the *Titanic*." Now each one of you is a much more marvelous organization than the great liner, and bound on a longer voyage. What I urge is that you so learn to control the machinery as to live with "day-tight compartments" as the most certain way to ensure safety on the voyage.

Those who are acquainted with his lay sermon will realize that this analogy has the central idea of the sermon in it.

The sermon reveals another lesson for the student of speaking. Sir William lived a long time with his themes. In an address "The Army Surgeon" given before the Army Medical School, Washington, D.C., February 28, 1894, nineteen years before he gave the lay sermon at Yale University, he quotes Carlyle, "Our main business is not to see what lies dimly at a distance, but to do what lies clearly at hand." This Carlyle quotation finds its way into the sermon. And at the McGill College of Medicine in 1899 in an address entitled "After Twenty Five Years," he says, "As to your method of work, I have a single bit of advice, which I give with the earnest conviction of its paramount influence in any success which may have attended my efforts in life — Take no thought for the morrow. Live neither in the past

nor in the future, but let each day's work absorb your entire energies, and satisfy your widest ambition." And in the quotation prefacing his address, "The Student Life," the valedictory address given to students at McGill University, April 14, 1905, the most frequently anthologized of his addresses, is this verse from the Sermon on the Mount, "Take therefore no thought for the morrow: for the morrow shall take thought for things of itself." Thus at least for twenty years the theme of the sermon had been basic in Sir William's thinking and living.

Not only did he take the time and energy to preach this lay sermon at Yale, but he obliged Professor William Lyon Phelps by addressing the Elizabethan Club. (F. Scott Fitzgerald credits the Elizabethan Club with making a taste for poetry at Yale respectable.) The following account of the Osler appearance is found in the Phelps' autobiography.

On 22 April 1913 Sir William Osler came to Yale and at the Elizabethan Club gave a magnificent lecture on his favorite book, *The Anatomy of Melancholy*. After he had spoken for some time, he asked me if we could endure any more; and I told him I thought the undergraduates could sit as long as he could stand. He made, as he did everywhere and on everybody, an unforgettable impression of learning, wisdom, humour, and kindness.

Thus at Yale he spoke on three separate, memorable occasions. He might have, with understandable excuse, turned down the opportunity to give the lay sermon and the talk before the Elizabethan Club for such speaking was carried on along with a demanding teaching schedule. In fact sometimes he was tempted to get out of speaking engagements when his work load was particularly heavy. To a request that he speak at Montreal, he wrote, "It has been on my soul to write to you ever since my return but I have been very busy and have rather more than the usual arrears of work. It is a great disappointment to me not to be able to go up at the opening of the new

building, but it will be simply an impossibility with what I have on hand. Moreover, I am pumped out and another address this year would finish me." But when the date of the exercises was changed to suit his convenience, he replied, "What the deuce am I to talk about in January at the opening?" Somehow during the intervening period he managed to prepare an address appropriate to the audience and the occasion, entitled, "Teaching and Thinking—the Two Functions of a Medical School." Note again how he drew from his observation for his materials.

It was hard for him to turn down an invitation to speak. Whatever interested man attracted the speaking talents of Sir William. His biographer Dr. Harvey Cushing expresses some surprise that he accepted the invitation of Charles William Eliot to give the Ingersoll lecture on immortality at Harvard University. Other physicians had been approached for the assignment but had steered clear of it. The *Athenaeum* in a review of the series praised the contribution by Osler stating that it was a superb example of the art of lecturing. The central idea attracted Edgar DeWitt Jones and he makes reference to the Osler Ingersoll lecture in his *Sermons I Love to Preach* published in 1953. Sir William always had something to say and he said it in a memorable style.

There is another lesson for the business and professional man to be learned from the lecturing of Sir William. He was never happy lecturing without a patient as an example. He needed the visual aid in his teaching. And he wanted as his epitaph that he was the teacher who opened the wards to the undergraduate. What a laboratory was to the medical scientist, the ward with the patient was to the clinician. It was in this realm of the relation of the teacher to the student that Osler made one of his greatest contributions. For this he will long be re-

membered in the history of the teaching of medicine.

Medical men, such as Harvey, Pasteur, Koch, Fleming, who have made a place for themselves in the history of their profession, are usually those who contribute some theory or some therapeutic measure to the accumulated knowledge of man and his diseases. However, Sir William's name burns as brightly as any of the greats in the history of medicine, and he is revered today by medical students and the lay public, because he was a beloved teacher who was articulate. Anthologies are proud to reprint such addresses as "The Student Life" and "A Way of Life." As recently as 1951, the Oxford University Press, brought out a beautiful edition of his public addresses under the title *Selected Writings of Sir William Osler*, which is a compilation from such collections of his occasional address as *Aequanimitas with Other Addresses* and *An Alabama Student*, volumes which went through many editions and printings during his active career and which men of the medical profession are proud to have on their shelves along with Dr. Harvey Cushing's biography of Sir William. Few and far between are the physicians who have developed the skill of public utterance to such excellence as

this poor Canadian boy who rose to occupy the most distinguished chair of medicine in the British empire.

Another lesson the student of business and professional speaking can learn from Sir William is his belief in man and his divinity. His love of his fellow men, both past and present, lifted him above the average physician. What other physicians did as a matter of routine, he glorified as a mission of love. He ennobled the relationship of doctor and patient, teacher and student, speaker and audience, not only in his daily life but in the written and spoken word. In his speaking Sir William communicated to an audience his reverence for human life. Edith Gittings Reid in her *A Short Life of Sir William Osler* (1931) writes of this warmth, this concern, this devotion that motivated his whole life.

Generally, when a great man is feted there comes a curious impression that the man is lost sight of in the hubbub and harrahing, and that he, too, has lost sight of his ideals in a flurry of accredited achievements. But Dr. Osler — at the great banquets in his honour, when the laughter and the gay talk are over, the last toast drunk, — suddenly rises and turns the whole assembly into a Cathedral of Souls. His after dinner acknowledgements become lay sermons, something from the very warmest depths of his heart appealing to yours.

Which Radio Stations Make Better Profits?

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A comparison of the distribution of profits for radio stations according to station power and age of station.

In recent years there has been great concern about the economic health of American radio stations. This concern stems from three factors. The first resulted from the change in licensing philosophy by the Federal Communications Commission shortly after the end of World War Two and resulted in the licensing of many additional radio stations. Since 1945, the number of radio stations has increased from roughly 909 AM stations to the present 3300 AM radio stations. The second factor affecting the economic health of American radio stations was the rapid development of television and the vast increase in the number of television stations after the licensing freeze of 1948-52 was lifted by the F. C. C. This television competition so hurt radio station revenues that in 1953 and 1954 many observers were sounding the death knell of radio. The third factor involved in this economic concern stems from the steady losses recently piled up by the national radio networks.

Prior to and immediately following the war, the networks were practically the sole support of the 909 radio stations licensed by the commission. Close to 85 per cent of the stations had network affiliations and, in 1945, over 43 per cent of total station revenues for all radio stations were the result of network revenues. By 1954, some nine years later, networks furnished only 18 per cent of the total station revenues. This drop, coupled with the fact that the number of AM radio sta-

tions had increased some 350 per cent, not to mention some 550 FM stations, is unquestionably a cause for concern for the economic health of the nation's radio stations. Additionally, during this period network affiliations dropped to roughly forty per cent of the existing stations.

Obviously, for all these stations to make a profit sufficient for them to live, means that new sources of revenue had to be found and that a realignment of the profit structure of the stations had to be expected. Both occurred. National spot advertising has shown a steady increase until it now represents about 27 per cent of total revenues for all stations. The phenomenal growth, however, came from the hitherto but lightly tapped revenue source of local sales which have increased from roughly 32 per cent in 1946 to nearly fifty five per cent of all station revenues. This increase is not simply a percentage increase either. It represents solid gain in local sales by local stations.

To illustrate the above, let us examine the profit and loss statement of a 'typical' radio station in 1957. These figures represent an average compiled from 754 radio stations reported in *Broadcasting* (August 4, 1958) in a survey for the National Association of Broadcasters. The revenue of this typical station was \$99,700 representing time sales minus agency and representative commissions and payments to networks for the sale of time. Time sales alone were \$100,500. These time sales rep-

resent a network revenue of but \$4,000 where network affiliation is applicable. Remember, only forty per cent of all stations now have network affiliations. For those stations which did not have network affiliations the revenue from national spot advertising represented 15% of the total time sales or about \$15,000. The remaining 85% of the time sales came from local sales amounting to an average income of \$85,400. Network affiliated stations reduced the amount of local sales to about \$80,200 and increased the national spot revenues by some \$1,800.

The expense of this average radio station totaled \$90,600 with the breakdown as follows:

Technical	(12.0%)	\$10,900
Programs	(32.8%)	\$29,700
Selling	(17.4%)	\$15,800
General,		
Administrative	(37.8%)	\$34,200

Of these expenses, salaries and wages accounted for \$52,700 or 58.2% of the above four categories. Taking the total expenses from the revenue (\$99,700 less \$90,600) we find the average American radio station reported in this study had a profit before taxes of 9.1% or \$9,100.

Obviously, the above figures represent the average of many stations and any individual station will vary from that average. The National Association of Broadcasters Economist, Charles H. Tower, in analyzing the reports from the above mentioned survey indicated that "such external factors such as power, affiliation, market size, and years on the air make some difference". However, according to Mr. Tower, it seems that market size, while it plays a most important role in the total revenues and expenses, does not play a very important role in the percentage of profit reported. According to the survey, highest profit margins were in cities of 2,500,000 population or more but in all markets under one million population the profit margins were uniformly even from 7% to 11%.

The number of stations in a market apparently makes some difference for the dollar profit goes down considerably as the number of stations increases. Further, the total station revenue does not seem to increase with the increase in number of stations in any given market. According to Mr. Towers study, total station revenue tends to remain about constant whether there are two or seven stations in a market.

One important factor that does seem to make a difference according to the study is network affiliation. Those stations with CBS and NBC affiliations reported a profit margin of 5.3%. Independents reported a 9.2% profit margin. It should be noted that the network affiliation stations profit margin while lower in percentage than the independent station actually represents a larger dollar profit by about \$1,600 per year median figure.

A second very important factor in the analysis of radio station economic health is the number of years a station has been on the air. For those radio stations thirty years on the air or more a profit margin of 11.4% or \$22,430 per year was reported. Stations on the air between twenty and thirty years reported a profit margin of 9.9% representing a dollar profit of \$12,890 yearly. Stations on the air from ten to twenty years showed a profit margin of only 6.2% for a dollar profit of \$8,930 per year. And, those stations on the air less than ten years reported a 6.1% profit margin which represented a dollar profit of but \$6,640 for the year. Obviously, the number of years a station has been on the air has a direct relationship both to the percentage of profit margin and the actual dollar profit.

The third important factor in a radio station's economic health is perhaps the most important factor. This is the power of the station. The average power breakdown with profit margin and dollar profit for the stations in the survey is as follows:

250-500w — 9.9% profit margin,

- \$11,300 profit yearly
- 1 kw — 1.9% profit margin,
\$1,100 profit yearly
- 5kw — 6.3% profit margin,
\$13,400 profit yearly
- 10-50kw — 11.1% profit margin,
\$40,700 profit yearly

As is readily seen, the power of a station plays a very important role in the profit margin and in the dollar profit of a station.

While the profit margin of 9.1% before taxes for the typical radio station is considerably lower than radio stations were reporting twenty years ago, this profit margin seems to be stabilizing itself over the past few years. Profit margins for the 'typical' station have not varied more than one per cent over the past three years.

To summarize briefly:

- 1) Stations with high power seem to do best both from a dollar profit and a profit margin basis.
- 2) Stations which have been on the air longest are making substantial profits, both dollar profit and profit margin.
- 3) Independent stations seem to have a high profit margin although the dollar profit is not as high as network affiliates.
- 4) 250-500 watt stations have a substantial profit margin and an excellent dollar profit.
- 5) Five kilowatt stations generally have not as high a profit margin but do fairly well on dollar profit.
- 6) Stations on the air from 10-20 years and from 1-10 years report a relatively low profit margin and a relatively low dollar profit.
- 7) Stations with one kilowatt power report an extremely low profit margin and a seriously low dollar profit. It would appear that these stations may be in serious trouble since both the profit margin and dollar profit figures represent before taxes are taken out indices.
- 8) Regarding profit margin percentages, market size has little or no effect. With respect to dollar profits, market size has little or no effect although the number of stations in a market has a very definite effect.

Generally, the nation's radio stations seem to be in excellent economic health although very few are returning phenomenal profit margins to their owners. The profit margin has apparently stabilized at around 9.1 percent and may easily enjoy an upswing if increasing television production costs drive advertisers to seek local radio outlets.

The Vocal Aspect of Delivery Traced Through Representative Works in Rhetoric and Public Speaking — Aristotle to Rush

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That the vocal aspect of delivery is an important part of speech is hardly debatable. Its importance has been recognized from the earliest known writings on rhetoric. Not all writers, however, have given the same amount of attention to it. This article is an attempt to give the reader an indication of the relative importance placed on voice in representative works in rhetoric from Aristotle to Rush, along with suggestions these writers gave for its effective use.

Delivery has long been recognized as one of the traditional parts of rhetoric. The *Rhetorica ad Herennium*, sometimes ascribed to Cicero (106-3 B. C.) mentions that in order to carry out his assignment, an orator must deal with five aspects or parts of rhetoric: inventio, dispositio, elocutio, memoria, and pronuntiatio.¹

This five-fold division is fairly traditional until the time of George Campbell, when memory practically drops out of the analysis. Today we are concerned with all these aspects, although we do not necessarily use the ancient terminology or recognize them as such.

Vocal utterance is inherent in the speech process. All speech teachers realize this, and yet in tracing this one aspect of speech we find a wide variation of emphasis placed upon it in various rhetorical works. That we consider it of importance today is proved by the fact that all speech texts devote space to it, and by the fact that many graduate students in their research are concerning themselves with the voice, its disorders and its improvement. Delivery (pronuntiatio) of course embraces two elements — vocal utterance and bod-

ily action — but the vocal aspect of delivery will be discussed in this article.

As a basis for considering the voice the attributes of voice as presented by Grant Fairbanks in his *Voice and Articulation Drillbook*, Time, Pitch, Loudness, Quality, and Stress are used. Under the general heading of "Time" Fairbanks considers rate, duration of tones, phrasing, variation of rate of phrases, duration of pauses, and rhythm. Under "Pitch" he is concerned with pitch level, pitch range, shifts of pitch, inflections, and intonation. "Loudness" embraces the loudness level and loudness variations. "Quality" of a voice is determined by the original tone initiated by the vocal folds and selective modification of this tone by the resonance cavities. "Stress" is used in a generic sense to refer to the relative prominence given to a sound, syllable or word by any vocal means and for any purpose whatever. It is subdivided into emphasis — logical stress for meaning — and accent — syllabic stress.²

Aristotle

Aristotle's *Rhetorica* is the first work to treat the vocal aspect of delivery in a specific way. Although Aristotle states that we need an art of delivery, he does little with it. The art of delivery, as Aristotle views it.

has to do with the voice: with the right management of it to express each several emotion—as when to use a loud voice, when a soft, and when the intermediate; with the mode of using pitch—high, low, and intermediate; and with the rhythms to be used in each particular case. These are, in fact, the three things that receive attention: volume, modulation of pitch, and rhythm.³

Although some perceive in Aristotle's treatment a certain philosophic contempt for delivery, Baldwin doubts that such an impression can be confirmed.⁴

Therefore our first encounter with voice in delivery is merely a tantalizingly brief passage suggestive because of its division of voice-placing and volume, pitch, and rhythm.

Cicero

Cicero believed that "Delivery is the dominant factor in oratory; without delivery the best speaker cannot be of any account at all, and a moderate speaker with a trained delivery can often outdo the best of them."⁵

He divided delivery into the two phases, voice and gesture, but felt that "for effectiveness and distinction in delivery the greatest share undoubtedly belongs to the voice."⁶

Cicero concerns himself with two attributes of voice—pitch and loudness—and gives general comments combining the two. His viewpoint is a practical one, dealing with the display of emotion and the use of the voice (and bodily action) to convey that emotion. He likens the tones of the voice to the strings of an instrument, which "answer to every touch, high, low, quick, slow, forte, piano, while between all of these in their several kinds there is a medium note; and there are also the various modifications derived from these, smooth,

or rough, limited or full in volume, tenuto or staccato, faint or harsh, diminuendo or crescendo."⁷

He then takes up various emotions and characterizes them from a vocal viewpoint. In these characterizations he mentions what we today call time, pitch, loudness, and quality:

For one kind of tone must be taken by anger—shrill hasty, with short abrupt clauses

Another tone is proper for compassion and for sorrow, wavering, full, halting, in a mournful key

Another belongs to fear, low and hesitating, and despondent

Another denotes energy; this is intense, vehement, eager with a sort of impressive urgency

Another is that of joy, gushing, smooth, tender, cheerful and gay

Another is the tone of dejection, a heavy kind of utterance, not employing appeal to compassion, drawn out in a single articulation and note ⁸

Cicero advocates a frequent change of pitch, but disagreed with the practice of his day. Gracchus, for example, had a skilled attendant stand behind him out of sight. The attendant would blow a note on his little ivory flageolet when Gracchus' speech was getting slack or when he was overstraining his voice. Cicero urged that "you will leave the piper at home and only take with you down to the house the perception that his training gives you."⁹

Earlier in Book III Cicero gives his viewpoint on pronunciation. Although he says he does not consider this as delivery, it deals with the vocal aspect and gives us an indication of what Cicero wanted in the matter of forming speech sounds:

In order to speak correctly we must also regulate our tongue and breath and actual tone of voice. I want neither excessive precision nor yet slackness in the pronunciation of the letters; neither faintness and feebleness nor yet excessive fulness and volume in the utterance of the words . . . there are certain faults which everyone without exception desires to escape—a soft or effeminate tone of voice, or one that is unmusical and out of tune.¹⁰

Here we can readily see his concern over pronunciation, loudness,

and quality as we label them today.

Thus we discover a distinct change between Arsitotle's attention to delivery and Cicero's. Accordingly, more space is given to its consideration by Cicero. Both were concerned with pitch, volume and rhythm, whereas Cicero added pronunciation and quality.

Quintilian

Quintilian, in his *Institutio Oratoria* gives one a more comprehensive treatment of the vocal aspect of delivery than either Cicero or Arsitotle.

In his treatment of the training of an orator in Book I he stresses the importance of delivery when he writes, "Now I ask you whether it is not absolutely necessary for the orator to be concerned with all these methods of expression which deal with gesture, arrangement of words and the inflexions of the voice, of which a great variety are required in pleading." He then recommends that the would-be orator study music. For further help in delivery Quintilian recommends that the young boy study under an actor. He warns against imitating the actor, and would use him only as a teacher to correct all faults of pronunciation and see that the utterance is distinct. As he states:

Our teacher must not tolerate the affect pronunciation, nor suffer words to be uttered from the depths of the throat or rolled out hollow-mouthed, or permit the natural sound of the voice to be over-laid with a fuller sound, a fault fatal to purity of speech. He will also see that final syllables are not clipped, that the quality of speech is continuously maintained, that when the voice is raised, the strain falls upon the lungs and not the mouth, and that gesture and voice are mutually appropriate.

Our actor will also be required to show how a narrative should be delivered, and to indicate the authoritative tone that should be given to advice, the excitement which should mark the rise of anger, and the change of tone that is characteristic of pathos. The best method of so doing is to select special passages from

comedy appropriate for the purpose, that is to say, resembling the speeches of a pleader. These are not only most useful in training the delivery, but are admirably adapted to increase a speaker's eloquence.¹¹

Quintilian also advocates an advanced instructor to help form his pupil's style of reading aloud, through learning passages by heart and declaiming them standing in the manner required by actual pleading; thus he would simultaneously train in delivery, voice and memory.

A more complete treatment of the matter of delivery is given in Book XI, Chapter 3, entitled, "Delivery, Gesture and Dress." Here Quintilian, echoing Cicero, divides delivery into the elements of voice and movement, and shows the importance of delivery to the success of an orator. He mentions famous orators whose success and reputation prove the essentialness of delivery. The fact is brought out that even in Quintilian's time there were those who advocated a "natural delivery," and felt that it was the only form of delivery worthy of a manly speaker. Quintilian's answer is clear and to the point:

But those persons are as a rule identical, either with those who are in the habit of disapproving of care, art, polish and every form of premeditation in actual speaking, as being affected and unnatural, or else with those who affect the imitation of ancient writers both in their choice of words and even in the rudeness of their intonation and rhythm. Those, however, who think it sufficient for men to be born to enable them to become orators are welcome to their opinion, and I must ask them to be indulgent to the efforts to which I am committed by my belief that we cannot hope to attain perfection unless nature is assisted by study.¹²

Recognizing that speech defects do exist, Quintilian feels that he should only consider the speaker on whom his precepts will not be wasted. He mentions such things as "incurable impediments of speech," "weak voice," "ugly or feeble voice," "hideous chanting intonation," and "physical uncouthness" of those speakers whom Nature has

endowed with ability. Voice is more important than gesture to Quintilian, since "even our gesture is adapted to suit the voice."¹³

Quintilian divides his treatment of the voice into two aspects: the nature of the voice and the manner in which it is used. Between these two he briefly takes up the matter of improving the voice through training. The best method to approach Quintilian's precepts on the vocal aspect of delivery is perhaps through an outline of his ideas. Following is a brief resume of his main points as expressed in Book XI:

I. NATURE OF THE VOICE:

A. Quantity

1. strong
2. weak
3. variations and gradations between the two

B. Quality

1. clear or husky
2. full or thin
3. smooth or harsh
4. wide or narrow compass
5. rigid or flexible
6. sharp or flat
7. lung power great or small

II. TRAINING TO IMPROVE THE VOICE:

A. Physical Robustness achieved by

1. walking
2. rubbing down with oil
3. easy digestion
4. the SIMPLE LIFE

B. Throat condition

1. must be sound — soft and smooth
2. must not be obstructed or inflamed

C. Must not coddle our voices, but continuously practice under natural conditions

III. RULES FOR DELIVERY:

A. Correctness

1. fluent
2. clear
3. pleasant
4. urbane

B. Clearness

1. words uttered in entirety; not swallowed or clipped
2. language properly punctuated, begin and end at proper place
3. proper pauses
4. correctness of punctuation

C. Ornateness

1. supported by voice that is easy, strong, rich, flexible, firm, sweet, enduring, resonant, pure, carrying far and penetrating the ear
2. easily-managed voice
 - a. evenness

b. variety in tone — avoid

monotony

3. do not press voice beyond its powers

4. avoid mannerisms

D. Appropriateness

1. adapt delivery to the subject
2. adapt delivery to audience
3. adapt delivery to self

Quintilian recognizes the anatomical aspect of the voice, and its improvement, but does not feel obligated to pursue that angle. As he states:

It is not necessary for my purpose to enquire into the causes which give rise to these peculiarities. I need not raise the question whether the difference lies in those organs by which the breath is produced, or in those which form the channels for the voice itself; whether the voice has a character of its own or depends upon the motions which produce it; whether it be the strength of the lungs, chest, or the vocal organs themselves that affords it most assistance, since the co-operation of all these organs is required. For example, it is not the mouth only that produces sweetness of tone; it requires the assistance of the nostrils as well, which carry off what I may describe as the overflow of the voice.¹⁴

One wishes Quintilian had felt obligated to pursue this aspect of the voice to see what information his era of history possessed on the anatomy of the vocal organs.

One finds reference in Quintilian to all the aspects of voice as we recognize them today: pitch, time, loudness, quality, and stress. His treatment is more systematic than his predecessors, and much more thorough. When one realizes that Quintilian was aiming at a complete pedagogical treatment of the prospective orator from birth to retirement in old age, his amplification of this aspect of speech is clear.

Thus we see in the "Classical Rhetoricians" an agreement on the importance of delivery, and of the voice in delivery. Aristotle's brief comments touch on volume, pitch, and rhythm. Cicero's more complete sections added pronunciation and quality to these; and Quintilian's most complete treatment touches upon quality, time, stress, loudness, and pitch, as well as enunciation, pro-

nunciation, vocal variety and voice improvement.

Transition

Even during the lifetime to Quintilian the teaching of rhetoric began to show signs of decay. The period from 100-400 A.D., referred to by Baldwin as the "second sophistic" was marked by slavish imitation of the ancients, and the teaching of speaking largely by means of "declamations," i.e., discourses composed from stock topics on subjects mainly fanciful and unreal.

Medieval rhetoric inherited the cult of *declamatio* from the second sophistic. Because of political conditions, there was little opportunity for deliberative oratory; forensic oratory was far less important than in ancient time; and the emphasis, even in preaching, fell upon epideictic or occasional oratory, the oratory of display. Thus by the nature of things, the medieval tendency to put emphasis on style was enhanced. *Dispositio*, *memoria*, and *pronuntiatio* were little discussed, and *inventio* was interpreted and perverted to mean the use of fancy, or the imagination, rather than the ancient concept of an investigation of all the available means of persuasion.

The Renaissance brought to light the great rhetorical treatises of antiquity, but at the same time it continued the medieval interest in *declamatio* and style. As far as rhetoric was concerned, it was essentially a continuation of the Middle Ages, save that it revived an interest in Aristotle, Cicero, and Quintilian.

Wilson

With Thomas Wilson's *Arte of Rhetorique* (1553) we find the first thoroughgoing treatment of all the main divisions of ancient theory in the English language. Book III deals with elocution, memory, and delivery. Although only three pages at the end of the book concern *pronuntiatio*, Wilson stresses heavily its importance.

Pronunciation, according to Wilson, is "an apt ordering, both of the voice, countenance, and all the whole body according to the worthiness of such words and matter, as by speech are declared."¹⁵

Wilson divides the vocal aspect of delivery into audible utterance, strong and ease of utterance, and aptness to order. His advice to speakers as to vocal variety is:

They that mind to get praise in telling their mind in open audience, must at the first beginning, speak somewhat softly, use proper pausing, and being somewhat heated, rise with their voice, as time and cause should best require.¹⁶

As to vocal improvement, he suggests:

They that have no good voices by nature, or cannot utter their words, must seek help elsewhere. Exercise of the body, fasting, moderation in meat and drink, gaping wide, or singing plain song, and counterfeiting those that do speak distinctly, help much to have a good delivery.¹⁷

Brinsley

John Brinsley, writing in 1612 in his *Literarius of the Grammar Schoole*, gives us insight into the typical methods of grammar schools as to the teaching of rhetoric. *Declamatio* as the method of teaching invention, the use of tropes and figures for teaching style, and the teaching of *pronuntiatio* were the three great features of grammar school instruction in rhetoric.

He recognizes the importance of delivery when he writes:

Pronunciation, being that which either makes or mars the most excellent speech. For all speeches are usually esteemed even as they are uttered or pronounced; the finest scholar without this is accounted nobody; and a mean scholar having obtained this faculty, is ordinarily reputed and commended above the best.¹⁸

The following is a brief summary of Brinsley's method of teaching delivery:

1. Insistence from the very first upon audible, leisurely and distinct articulation.
2. Expression always to be governed by meaning.

3. Practice in English utterance of material which is difficult to understand or speak in Latin.

4. Use of competition between students in reading the same sentences or speeches.

5. Competition in reading poetry; this to be read like prose, not according to scansion.

6. Declamation of "pathetic" passages in Talaëus; delivery of themes or declamations with special attention to emphasis on the correct words; the delivery of Cicero's orations.¹⁹

Criticism — Results

Broadly speaking, the eighteenth century and early nineteenth century witnessed the growth of two principal tendencies: classicism and the new elocutionary movement, led by such men as Sheridan, Walker, and Austin. Early in the century also appeared severe criticism on the inertness and colorlessness of delivery. Addison in his essay, "On Public Speaking," poked fun at orators who lacked action in their speaking; and Swift, in his "Letter to a Young Clergyman," criticized the frequent practice of reading sermons. Chesterfield's "Letters to His Son" reflect this importance of good delivery to a successful speaker. In 1741 he urged his son to take care in perfecting his speech, citing the pains taken by Demosthenes to overcome natural disabilities. In 1748 he spent an entire letter criticizing the youth's bad enunciation, and giving directions for improving it and his delivery in general. He urged good enunciation, good carriage of the body, and the proper observation of pause. Chesterfield's concept of oratory was that it consisted of grace and correctness of style and delivery.

It seems that the ground was being prepared for the elocutionists, who about 1760 were to begin their publications. The criticism of English oratory during the first half of the century, which turned more and more to the details of oral presentation, was probably the principal cause of the elocutionary movement.²⁰

Campbell

George Campbell's *Philosophy of Rhetoric* (1776) is not concerned with delivery.

Blair

The Lectures on Rhetoric and Belles Lettres of Hugh Blair (1783) contains a lecture on delivery. After an introductory section dealing with the importance of pronunciation or delivery of a discourse, he states two general objects which every public speaker will have in mind in forming his delivery: (1) to speak so as to be fully and easily understood by all who hear him; and (2) to speak with grace and force, so as to please and move his audience.

Under the topic of understandability he mentions four requisites: due degree of loudness of voice, distinctness, slowness, and propriety of pronunciation. He develops each of these and then turns to a consideration of what gives grace and force to what the speaker utters. These may be categorized under four heads: emphasis, pauses, tones, and gestures.

By *emphasis*, Blair means a stronger and fuller sound of voice by which one distinguishes the accented syllable of some word on which he designs to lay particular stress. To acquire the proper management of the emphasis the great rule is that the speaker study to attain a just conception of the force and spirit of the sentiments which he is to pronounce.

As to *pauses*, Blair divides them into two kinds: emphatical pauses and those that mark the distinctions of sense. The latter is designated as more important and more difficult. It involves marking the divisions of the sense, and at the same time allowing the speaker to draw his breath.

Tones in pronunciation consist of the modulation of the voice, with the notes or variations of sound which one employs in public speaking. Blair emphasizes that the conversational tones should be the *foundation* of

public pronunciation, and one should not become oratorical or declamatory.

He concludes this lecture with an admonition to guard against all affectation, and suggests that if one has any gross defects in his voice or gestures he should begin to rectify them in his private manner of speaking; and then carry to the public the right habit he has formed.

Blair, in summary, believes the delivery of a discourse to be effective if it embraces a due degree of loudness, distinctness of articulation, moderation in pronunciation, and propriety in pronunciation; and the requisites for pleasing are attention to emphasis, attention to pauses, attention to tones, and attention to action.

Whately

Richard Whately, in his *Elements of Rhetoric* (1828) attacks the elocutionists of his day and gives his own suggestions for developing a "natural" delivery. He objects to the methods of the elocutionists because they do not produce natural speakers, because they center too much attention on the voice, and because they have used systems of marks for indicating emphasis and other elements of expression.

To take the place of the elaborate systems of vocal training and expression which had grown up, Whately advocates what he calls the "natural" manner (later called the "think-the-thought method"). He says:

The practical rule then to be adopted, in conformity with the principles here maintained, is, not only to pay no studied attention to the voice, but studiously to withdraw the thoughts from it, and to dwell as intently as possible on the Sense, trusting to Nature to suggest spontaneously the proper emphasis and tones.²¹

Whately advocates considerable practice in delivery, and judicious correction of faults by a trained instructor. He believes that this method will enable men, who, as a rule, speak well enough in conversation,

to achieve "the utmost excellence attainable" in each case.

Thus we find a wide variety of opinion regarding delivery in the works of Campbell, Blair, and Whately. Campbell is not concerned directly with delivery in his "Philosophy of Rhetoric" but takes it up in his lectures; Blair in his lecture on the subject adequately treats time, pitch, loudness, and stress but ignores voice quality; Whately is concerned with his "natural" delivery, and will have little to do with any of this voice business.

Rush

Dr. James Rush's *Philosophy of the Human Voice* (1855) is the first great analytical inquiry into the physiology of vocal delivery. Here we meet the scientific approach to the problem for the first time, and this work is believed by some to be the most important contribution by an American to the field of speech prior to the twentieth century.

Rush's purpose is adequately stated in his Introduction:

By every scheme of the cyclopedia, the subject of the voice is allotted to the physiologist; yet upon its most important function,—speech and its expression,—he has strangely neglected his part, by borrowing the small substance of his knowledge from the fancies of the rhetoricians, and the intermeddling authority of grammarians. It is time at last for physiology, of right and seriously, to take up its task.²²

Dr. Rush classifies the constituents of the human voice into Quality, Force, Time, Abruptness, and Pitch.

He invented the term "Orotund" to designate the assemblage of eminent qualities which constitutes the highest character of the speaking voice. By an "Orotund" voice he means a natural, or improved manner of uttering the elements, with a fullness, clearness, strength, smoothness, and a sub-sonorous quality, rarely heard in ordinary speech, and never found in its highest excellence, except through long and careful cultivation. Rush admits he does not

know the mechanical structure and action that produces the orotund, but as the best and only pure instances of this voice are the result of cultivation, he proposes some elementary means by which it may be acquired.

His methods deal with vocalizing an artificial cough, or by preparatory exercises in the interrupted jets of laughter and crying, forgetting the natural use of interrupted expiration.

Rush's "working plan," a didactic system of elementary exercises, constitutes his mode of instruction in elocution. He would have his student: (1) exercise his voice on the elements, as they are sounded in a strict analysis of words — alphabetic elements; (2) practice the combinations of the elements and different degrees of duration; (3) practice the vanishing movement; (4) practice force; (5) practice stress; (6) practice pitch; (7) practice melody; (8) practice cadence; (9) practice tremor; (10) practice on quality of voice; and (11) practice rapidity of speech.

Thus we see in Dr. Rush's work the forerunner of our present-day knowl-

edge of the human voice and its attributes. Gray and Wise adequately sum up the advances of speech since Rush when they write:

The last few decades have seen other contributions to our understanding of speech which the ancient writers could not have known. It may be said that more progress has been made in the past fifty years in our knowledge of the *speech processes* than was made in all the previous centuries since Quintilian.²³

Conclusion

We are indebted to such writers as Aristotle, Cicero, Quintilian, Wilson, Brinsley, Blair, Whately, and Rush for preparing the ground for our present-day knowledge on the vocal aspect of delivery. As is evidenced, all of them realized the tremendous value of delivery to effective speaking, and the value of the vocal aspect. The type of treatment varied from author to author, as did the terminology, but voice has served as a connecting link from the earliest times down to the present in this matter of effective speech-making.

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A Conceptual Basis for Experimental Studies in Discussion

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In order to design experimental studies, researchers must (1) identify criteria for the evaluation of the results of possible experiments and (2) identify independent variables which ought to be controlled; this article suggests some of the possible criteria and probable variables.

One of the most difficult problems faced by graduate students and their advisors is two-fold: (1) to find a research problem which lends itself well to experimental investigation, and (2) to locate such a problem within a general pattern of research so that the results of an individual study may be compared and integrated with other studies and, in this way, contribute to a body of new information which can be added to our present knowledge.

The purpose of this paper is to present the outline of a possible series of experimental studies in discussion. The term "discussion" is used here in the sense in which it has come to be used popularly in our literature. More specifically, it may be identified as oral group intercommunication for the cooperative solving of a problem: the format may sometimes include short speeches followed by panel discussions and/or questions by members of a larger "audience."

Research scholars who desire to do experimental studies in discussion are faced with a series of very complex problems. Obviously, they wish to determine the relative effectiveness of a number of different techniques which may be employed; these alternative techniques could be called "independent variables." However, before they can evaluate the effective-

ness of any one of these independent variables, researchers must determine what they (and their colleagues) mean by *effectiveness*. To give specific meaning to the concept of effectiveness, scholars in the field of discussion must agree, at least to some extent, upon a set of criteria which may be used as a standard of judgment.

We might make a start in this direction by outlining those criteria which (1) logically might result from discussion, (2) would have real value to society, and (3) would lend themselves to some degree of measurement. If it can be shown that such criteria can be determined, then the next step in forming experimental design in this field would be to suggest possible independent variables which might be controlled to a reasonable degree.

The criteria listed in this paper are not regarded by the writer as the final pronouncement upon the topic; they are set forth for the consideration of those who are interested in this field.

The following criteria of discussion seem to be logically possible of achievement, socially valuable, and to some degree measurable.

One criterion might be: *do the participants present important information?* Do they exchange accurate

data? Do they, for example, describe the latest discoveries of medical research? Is such information the result of unbiased observation and reliable testimony? Is this information closely related to the problem under consideration by the participants?

A second criterion could be: *do the participants interpret information?* Do they present representative points of view concerning the significance of events and situations which are presented as pertinent knowledge? An example of this might be an interpretation of the results of an election or the development of the hydrogen bomb. Are a number of reasonable interpretations given? Does this interpretation of information relate to the problem faced by the group?

A third criterion might be: *do the participants present an analysis of a current problem?* For example, do the members of the group describe the nature, extent and causes of our difficulties with Russia? Do they show consideration of many points of view which are currently held by intelligent and informed persons? Do they indicate good use of logical principles in tracing the causes of the difficulty? Is this analysis related to the problem faced by those persons who participate?

A fourth criterion could be: *do the participants evaluate a proposal (or proposals) for the solving of an important problem?* For example, the group might present an evaluation of the Benson Farm plan. Do they consider the related problem, its extent, nature and causes? Do they show intelligent use of logical principles in weighing the merit of the proposal considered? Do they reflectively consider other representative proposals or alleged solutions to the problem?

One thing should be noted at this point. In each of the criteria outlined above, a problem, either specifically stated or implicitly suggested, provides the basis for the discussion. Even the criterion of exchanging information requires that the knowledge presented be related to the practical

problem faced by the members of the group.

There is one other criterion which, to the best of my ability, I cannot remember having read or heard mentioned by any theorist. It is a rather challenging thought that the following condition might be considered a defensible criterion of a discussion experience: *does the discussion demonstrate practical aspects of the democratic process?* Social psychologists tell us that many persons are relatively unfamiliar with the practical techniques for solving their mutual problems. Political scientists tell us that the basic assumption of American democracy is that "We, the people," will be able to employ the process of reflective thinking and work out a cooperative political and social program. From a practical point of view, the democratic process is the art of men coming face to face with their problems, considering all reasonable opinions, motives, and alleged solutions, and mutually agreeing upon a cooperative course of action. Discussion is a method by which participants may become more familiar with these aspects of the democratic process.

We have listed a series of possible criteria of discussion (or discussions). We now turn our attention to this question: What are the alternative techniques which may be employed?

These independent variables which may be listed outline parts of experimental design of a number of research projects.

One of the sets of independent variables which may be considered concerns the format. The various formats which should be experimentally tested are as follows: (1) group discussion; (2) panel discussion (discussion by a group before an audience); (3) short speeches followed by panel discussion; (4) panel discussion followed by audience questions and panel-member answers; (5) short speeches followed by audience questions and panel-member answers;

and (6) short speeches followed by panel discussions followed by audience questions and panel-member answers.

Another group of independent variables which merits investigation includes the types of participants which may be selected. Should participants have the following qualifications: (1) ability to communicate well; (2) an attitude of respect for the opinions of other participants; (3) the ability to employ the process of reflective thinking; and (4) superior sources of information?

One other set of variables deserves experimental study: the methods of leadership employed during the program. We may identify three types of leadership according to the amount and type of guidance which the participants receive from the "chairman" or leader: (1) relatively little guidance; (2) guidance according to the requirements of effective communication; and (3) guidance according to the requirements of the logical processes of group reflective thinking.

Leadership which leaves the participants relatively unguided introduces the topic and participants, introduces sections of the format if there are more than one (e.g., short speeches, panel discussion, etc.,) and closes the discussion.

A discussion leader who seeks primarily to guide the participants according to the requirements of communication performs the functions listed under the first type (described above) with these additional duties: he (1) secures clarity of terminology and ideas; (2) secures effective participation by the group members by discouraging over-long speeches, encouraging non-talkative members, eliminating voice overlapping, and (perhaps) designating participants by turns.

A discussion leader who guides the participants according to the require-

ments of the logical processes of reflective thinking performs all of the functions of leadership listed above plus these other activities: he (1) secures information concerning the problem, its extent, nature, and causes; (2) secures evaluation of alleged solutions by calling the attention of the participants to the following items: issues involved, various alleged solutions, representative arguments in support of propositions, and lack of evidence in support of arguments advanced; (3) clarifies areas of agreement and disagreement; and (4) secures an attitude of respect for the points of view of other participants when such positions are supported by pertinent arguments and sound evidence. These functions are performed by the discussion leader only when the participants do not adequately accomplish these results without his guidance.

A list of *criteria* for discussion has been presented along with a series of *independent variables* in discussion techniques. The design of an experimental study in discussion would seek to compare the way in which use of one or another of the independent variable meets one or another of the criteria listed. For example, the experimenter might try two types of leadership and, with matched groups, make every possible effort to control all other variables. He would then compare resulting differences in amount and quality of information presented, amount and quality of interpretation of information, quality of analysis of the problem, quality of evaluation of a proposal or proposals for the solving of the problem, and the degree to which the practical aspects of the democratic process were demonstrated. Each of these criteria would be tabulated for each of the two matched groups, and the differences compared.

Brainstorming As A Teaching Technique For Training Speech Therapists

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Brainstorming, used for developing creativity and spontaneity in undergraduate speech therapy majors, was employed as a teaching technique, and its results were subjectively evaluated in therapy situations.

Brainstorming, the process of utilizing spontaneity and ingenuity in thinking, has been used in industry for many years. It is a "strategy with which a problem can be attacked—in fact literally stormed—by dozens of ideas."¹ A brainstorming session consists of bringing a group together for the purpose of finding solutions to a given problem, one that is recognized by those participating. Quantity of ideas and spontaneity of thought are stressed. The members of the group are reminded not to inhibit ideas they may have however strange, unique, or bizarre they may sound. The use of adverse criticism of the ideas presented is withheld until a later date. Participants not only contribute their own ideas but also suggest how ideas of others can be combined or expanded.

This technique for unleashing creative powers has been a means of securing original ideas which ultimately result in new or improved products, revision of production methods, and increased profits for industry. Many large corporations are currently using this approach in their organizations. Industries have established workshops where individuals are encouraged to practice brainstorming so they might possibly begin to realize their own creative abilities. The Aluminum Corporation of America, Campbell Soups, DuPont, General Electric, and Remington Rand are only a few of the

many industrial organizations using brainstorming.² Banks, research laboratories, churches, military services and civic organizations have also derived practical results from the use of brainstorming.

Such an approach is not conventionally employed as a teaching device in the field of speech therapy. Our field is so extensive and includes so many facts to be learned that, all too frequently, we tend to develop memory ability while inhibiting originality on the part of the student. If he masters the textual and lecture material presented, he has little time left for personal creativity. Yet those who are actively engaged in therapy realize that the outstanding therapists frequently have at least one thing in common, the ability to apply theoretical concepts in a variety of ways. The alert therapist needs to be able to react quickly to unusual responses from the student, she needs to be able to make immediate suggestions when a clinical technique fails to bring the desired results, she needs to have an answer to the problems of discipline which occur and she needs the ability to motivate individuals. Beginning therapists tend to rely solely on the information they have learned. It is obvious that not every potential situation which might ultimately occur in therapy could have been discussed in the training program. The therapist who has the

ability to create new ideas, who is not limited to the textbook and who is not frightened by originality can meet these situations with poise.

The ability to be creative is one of the characteristics of the human race. Few of us do more than superficially tap this resource, however. We need guidance in this activity, we need reassurance that conformity is not always the best solution, and we need experiences in practicing creativity. This is an area which is frequently not developed in the training of undergraduate speech therapy students.

A modification of the brainstorming approach was utilized with a small group of first semester senior students who were enrolled in the clinical practicum and supervised teaching in the schools. Essentially, the plan was four fold: introduction of the technique, use of brainstorming, generation and evaluation of ideas, and applications in therapy situations.

1) *Introduction of the technique.* The use of this device in industrial areas and a review of the results attributed to brainstorming were presented. The feasibility of applying such a technique to the field of speech therapy was discussed. A desire to "experiment" with the idea was instilled in the students and they participated in the selection of topics to be brainstormed.

2) *Use of Brainstorming.* Opportunities were given for the group to practice modified brainstorming and to apply the techniques in the class situation. One of the first meetings was devoted to the application of the brainstorming technique to the production of various consonant sounds. Prior to this meeting, students were asked to review the various techniques listed in the literature for the production of the s, l, and r sounds. At the class meeting, students were again assured that any idea, however novel, was to be presented. Approximately fifteen minutes were devoted to each of the three consonant sounds.

As a result of these meetings, the class members produced approximately fifteen suggestions for the production of each consonant sound reviewed.

Application of this work in actual therapy situations was made at a later date. The students worked with a speech handicapped individual having these three defective sounds. Each student spent a few minutes in the therapy situation while other class members observed the work. Contrary to general procedure, the students were told to give the child only two attempts to produce the sound after a suggestion had been given. Then, a new approach was to be used. Here, the emphasis was placed on being able to make many suggestions for the production of a sound rather than ascertaining the success or failure of any technique. Many of these ideas were variations of the placement approach and were outgrowths of previous brainstorming sessions. Evaluations were made at a later date.

In another session, the students did brainstorming on the handling of unrelated ideas or objects introduced by children receiving therapy. Again this was followed by a practical application lesson. In one instance, for example, a therapist was working on the production of a sound in isolation when her student produced a snowball. The teacher was to modify the lesson and utilize the snowball.

Other areas in the series of brainstorming sessions included the use of various disciplining actions on the part of the teacher and the development of motivating devices for use in therapy with children.

3) *Generation and evaluation of the ideas presented.* Initially, students were to indicate immediate reactions and ideas without making any attempt to ascertain their worth. Once the student seemed capable of producing several ideas spontaneously, she was then asked to evaluate each and select the one most

beneficial to a particular situation.

4) *Applications in therapy situations.* Students were encouraged to practice being creative and original in actual therapy situations in the public schools and speech clinic for the remainder of the semester. They were further encouraged to devise new ideas based on the interests and remarks of the children.

Since this was an initial attempt to use this approach as a teaching technique, the project was not organized on an experimental basis. The results must be limited to the instructor's subjective evaluation of the clinical ability of the students after six class meetings using the brainstorming approach as compared with previous groups having six conventionally taught class sessions.

The outstanding observable result was the poise demonstrated by these students in actual public school therapy situations. Instead of being frightened by unusual occurrences,

they seemed to accept them as challenges. They enjoyed being able to meet difficult situations with ease. They continued to develop new ideas and new approaches to their lessons even after the group brainstorming sessions were discontinued. Their critic teacher was delighted with their ability to adjust to "the unusual" and maintained she learned several new ideas from them.

Certainly brainstorming is no panacea for the many problems confronting student teachers in speech therapy. It is a method of helping them understand "the importance of small ideas and rearrangements of what we already know."³ It is one teaching method which might serve as a supplement to some conventional approaches and might eventually contribute to increased proficiency on the part of beginning therapists. It is a pedagogical technique which may well warrant further investigation.

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Invention and Ethos: The Metamorphosis of Alexander Hamilton

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Recent re-appraisals of the ideas of Alexander Hamilton have tried to prove that he has been misrepresented and misunderstood. The result has been an attempt to modify his reputation, to change our conception of his ethos in order to make it more compatible with democratic ideals. This study of his invention makes manifest that there is more than a modicum of truth in the customary conception of Hamilton's character: that he was, in fact, distrustful of both, the common man and of democratic processes.

Most rhetoricians are aware of the re-appraisals of men and events that are accomplished by scholars of history and literature. As rhetorical critics they are particularly cognizant of the pitfalls which such re-evaluations of an historical personage's ethos (for this is often what such a re-assessment boils down to), may bring.

But perhaps the best way to understand these difficulties is to consider the concept of ethos first, before examining the other main parts of this study. These other sections, to which the concept will be related, are as follows: the attempt at modifying our conception of Hamilton by some present day critics; Hamilton as man and orator; his political philosophy; his writings; his speechmaking; and finally, the evaluation itself.

THE CONCEPT OF ETHOS

The transformation of the ethos of an historical personage, that classical Greek rhetorical concept concerned with the total proof power or appeal of an individual personality, is difficult because a commonly held assessment of such an individual usually has come about over a long period of time and dealt with a long string of factors. But such a task has further pitfalls too.

For instance, although the impact of a person's ethos ostensibly is an extra-logical appeal, and as such

it is closer to what might be termed pathos — emotional appeal or proof — nevertheless, it partakes of logos, or logical appeal as well. In fact, ethos is dependent on so many things — a case might be made for saying that it is dependent on all things — that it is hard to separate it into its component parts.

The delineation of effective, hence positive, logical and pathetic appeals, for example, depend on the ethos of an individual; conversely the ethical appeal of an individual, the impact of his total personality, to put it into oversimplified terms, is influenced by the reasoning and the emotional proof that the speaker selects for dissemination. Not only that, but many times reason itself is built upon emotional and pathetic appeals.

Nonetheless, the attempt to separate aspects of ethos for purposes of analysis must be made if the analysis is to have any cogency and validity whatever.

Classical rhetoric suggests that ethos is compounded of a person's good will, his high character and his sagacity. This is the positive appeal. Lack of these qualities makes for what may be called negative appeal. A person's ethos suffers, we often say, when he is accused of crimes, when he is unreasonable, when he exhibits less than wisdom

in his utterances, or participates in like negative activities.

The components of ethos — character, good will and wisdom — in so far as the person himself is concerned come largely from his reputation; in so far as the person as a speaker is concerned they are discovered in three broad areas: his invention or ideas; his organization; and his presentation. For the sake of simplicity in the consideration of the ethical appeal of Hamilton only one of the above aspects will be analyzed although others will be touched upon. That aspect will be his invention or ideas.

THE ATTEMPTS AT METAMORPHOSIS

Just as most rhetoricians are cognizant of the pitfalls that are present in re-assessing an individual's reputation, so too, are they aware of that commonplace of historicism that each nation re-writes its history in keeping with the attitudes, moods and prejudices of a prevailing time. It is no wonder, then, that with the recent resurgence of conservatism — in the guise of neo-conservatism — attempts at reviving Alexander Hamilton and of absolving him of some commonly held viewpoints derogatory to his reputation have recently been coming to the fore. The object of these efforts has been to change the prevailing picture of Hamilton in the mind of America; in short, to give some negative aspects of his ethos a more positive and popular appeal.

Professor Bower Aly, for instance, suggests in his recent essay on "Alexander Hamilton's Year" that probably "no other great American has been so consistently misrepresented and misunderstood as Alexander Hamilton. Even men who should know better", he continues, "have attacked Hamilton for saying, 'Your people, sir, is a great beast.' With equal indiscretion, those who admire Hamilton have sometimes endeavored to justify a statement that has never been authenticated."¹

It is upon the denial of this statement, unauthenticated perhaps, but

which — for those interested — may be found in the preface of *Jeffersonian Principles and Hamiltonian Principles*,² that Professor Aly, among others, builds an edifice which attempts to exonerate Hamilton of some of the so-called popular fallacies that are attributed to him, and thus enhance his ethical appeal.

Louis M. Hacker is another case in point. In the *Alexander Hamilton in the American Tradition*, he is — if not eager to absolve Hamilton of the above statements and similar concepts — rather anxious to give him more than the customary homage for his contributions to democratic America, and in this way improve his ethos.

Now the ascertainment of whether Hamilton made the statement or not (it was purportedly made in private conversation), is not the aim of this study. Nor is its main function to refute Bower Aly or argue with Louis M. Hacker. What is relevant, and hence the objective, is that Hamilton was the kind of person whose ideas about people were similar to those of the infamous proposition; that he was the kind of person about whom it might easily be said that the "most flattering attitude toward . . . [him] is one of suspicion;"³ and that, in sum, in regard to these concepts which formed a significant part of his invention and hence his ethos (since you cannot evaluate a person's ethos apart from his ideas), he has not been misrepresented nor misunderstood.

And well may this be so. For despite the "endeavors of the Alexander Hamilton Bicentennial Commission [which] have served in some degree to correct the popular fallacies concerning Hamilton",⁴ the fact remains that the correction is a mighty difficult thing to do. This is particularly true when it is discovered that the words of the orator-statesman himself belie the staunchest efforts of the cleansers.

There is little doubt that Hamilton was a great American statesman and

orator; or that his labors were not of inestimable importance in the building of America. There is little doubt, however, that the prevailing conclusions about Hamilton, to which Aly, Hacker and others object, are fairly well founded. Moreover, even if Hamilton never did make the statement, "Your people, sir, is a great beast", his writings and especially his speeches reveal that the canard does sound like Hamilton after all.

THE ORATOR AND THE MAN

What kind of person was Hamilton? Since the ethos of a speaker is built upon a totality of effort during a lifetime, it might not be amiss first to consider some pertinent personal and biographical data.

Claude G. Bowers, one of his biographers, presents an interesting picture when he says of Hamilton:

Physically, he was far from imposing, but it is easy to imagine the virility of his manner, the flash of his conqueror's eye. In the New York Convention called to pass on the Constitution, it was the force and persuasiveness of his arguments that converted a hostile majority. Later Congress was to refuse him permission to present personally his reports on the ground that he might unduly sway its judgment; and Jefferson was to resent his interminable and passionate harangues in the Cabinet Room. But these exhibitions of his eloquence advanced his political career by impressing leaders with the brilliancy of his intellect. Hamilton's power as an orator was unsurpassed in any assembly.⁵

Despite this power of oratory, Hamilton's appearances before the mass of the people were few indeed. This was understandable, since his purpose was to sway the leaders and to win them to his leadership; thus his speeches were plain and had scarcely any appeal to the emotions, but his enthusiasm and intensity of conviction carried them over. Force, clearness, "logic on fire", and facts were his weapons, and the few speeches which are extant fail to explain his power. "The stories of audiences moved to tears are scarcely

in keeping with the absence of slightest attempts at pathos or appeals to the emotions."⁶

In a way, Hamilton's is the typical story of the founders of the American dream—the rise from poverty to success. He was born in the British Colony of Nevis, one of the Leeward Islands in 1757. His early education was so fragmentary that after some desultory schooling from his mother and a Presbyterian clergyman at St. Croix, he was forced to go to work at the age of twelve. His native intelligence came to the rescue, however, and when he showed flashes of brilliance, his aunts befriending him, sent him to the United States in the fall of 1772, where he attended the Francis Barbers grammar school at Elizabethtown, New Jersey, and later King's College.⁷

With the arrival of the Revolution, however, and his studies hindered, Hamilton began writing for the Whig newspapers, and studying artillery. On March 14th, 1776, he became captain of the Artillery Company and the following year he became aide de camp and secretary to Washington, with the rank of Lieutenant Colonel. Some bumptiousness on his part brought on a quarrel with Washington, however, and he resigned in 1781.⁸

Political activities then attracted him and he entered Congress in November, 1782. Later he participated in the Annapolis Convention where he called for political unity in order that commerce and commercial unity might be fostered. Following that, he was a delegate to the Constitutional Convention and to the New York Ratifying Convention.⁹

When the national government was formed as a result of the conventions, Hamilton was important in its early growth. From 1790 to 1794, as the first secretary of the treasury, he wrote the laws that established the government on a stable basis.¹⁰ Although still interested in politics, Hamilton resigned the secretaryship

on January 31, 1795, to resume his private law practice. His political interest continued to manifest itself, however, in his work behind the scenes, but this did not continue long: A duel with Burr, resulting from a political quarrel, cut short his career; he died July 12, 1804.¹¹

POLITICAL PHILOSOPHY

Hamilton thought a good deal of governmental strength, but he gave little thought to liberty; instead, his emphasis was on national wealth, power, and order; there was thus a neglect of local attachments and autonomy. More important, he paid little attention to the natural aspirations of individuals for greater happiness, opportunity and wisdom. He, therefore, might well be categorized as a hard efficient realist, whose work was invaluable to the nation at the time it was done, but whose narrow, aristocratic political ideas needed correction from the doctrines of some of the more liberal thinkers such as Jefferson and Lincoln.¹² His character, reputation and ideas, therefore, were the kind that would appeal to the more conservative element of early American society. Many still do.

"Hamilton's fundamental ideas," declared James Truslow Adams, in the introduction to his interesting book, *Jeffersonian Principles and Hamiltonian Principles*,

which it is needful to emphasize in order to understand the political edifice which he tried to erect, was distrust of the common man. He believed that the great generality of men were incapable of self-government, due to ignorance, selfishness, absence of self-control and other qualities,—or lack of them. Looking back over history, he rightly saw that this had always been the case. Looking ahead, he saw no reason to believe it would ever be any different. Human nature, he thought, would not change. Thoroughly convinced of that, and being a practical man without the dreams of an enthusiast or idealist, the inferences he drew were obvious.¹³

Condemnatory of the common man as he was, Hamilton had only con-

tempt for the weaknesses of the Constitution of the United States, with its representative equality. Instead, he even defended the notorious corruption of the British Parliament, saying that it was expedient. This is illustrated when he said "... purge it [parliament] of its corruption and give to its popular branch equality of representation, and it would become an *impracticable* government; as it stands at present, with all its supposed defects, it is the most perfect government which ever existed."¹⁴

The precedent of British Parliament gave Hamilton another argument which again illustrates his innate distrust of the people. This is the theory of so-called "virtual representation." This idea was first articulated by Edmund Burke and utilized in England by those who were interested in maintaining the substance of aristocracy. This was accomplished through the device of couching the idea in democratic terms. It is in *The Federalist* No. 35 that Hamilton argues for "merchants" to represent "mechanics", and for "land holders" to be the natural representatives of those who actually till the soil.¹⁵ All this, of course, also lends credence to the view that Hamilton regarded democratic representation as exceedingly weak.

But the impracticability of a representative government was not the only aspect of the idea of democracy which was distasteful to Hamilton. His contempt for the populace is further illustrated in one of the articles in the *Daily Advertiser*, which he signed—and here is a suggestive indication of character and reputation—Caesar. "For my part," he declared, "I am not much attached to the *majesty of the multitude*, and therefore waive all pretensions (founded on such conduct), to their countenance. I consider them in general as very ill qualified to judge for themselves what government will best suit their peculiar situations; nor is this to be wondered

at. The science of government is not easily understood."¹⁶

From the above, therefore, it can readily be inferred that only educated men like himself were competent enough to judge government. Equal status and responsibility were thus denied the common people.

WRITINGS

Hamilton's writings, though small in extent, were generally highly purposeful in objective. For example, as one of the authors of *The Federalist*, it was his purpose to have the Constitution, which he really felt was too weak, accepted by the populace, which, to put it mildly, he distrusted. Since it was expedient — and much of Hamilton's speaking and writing shows this expediency — to press its adoption, however, Hamilton was ready to make some concessions. To this end he even appeared to get away from his previous ideas concerning the people, by making *them* the source of political power. Thus, by implication, at least, he seemed to give them political status. "As the people are the only legitimate fountains of power," he said in *The Federalist*, "and it is from them that the constitutional charter under which the several branches of government hold their power, it seems strictly consonant to the republican theory, to recur to the same original authority, not only whenever it be necessary to enlarge, diminish, or new-model the powers of government, but also whenever any one of the departments may commit encroachments on the chartered authorities of the others."¹⁷

This departure from his ideas — which on the surface seems to prove the opposite of the thesis herein considered — was engendered, we must understand, by his larger motive, that of a strong central government. And a strong central government, as everyone knows, is usually more amenable to the kind of authoritarian ideals that Hamilton was vitally interested in.

Even with this in mind, however, soon his *real* ideas again manifested themselves. So he immediately indicated that the above proposition was only seemingly correct since hindrances to acceptance of such a principle soon came forth. Thus, he broached many reasons why the ostensibly *pro populo* statement was not true, and then said that perhaps, "the greatest objection of all is that the decisions which would probably result from such appeals would not answer the purpose of maintaining the constitutional equilibrium of government . . . It would never be expected to turn on the true merits of the question. It would inevitably be connected with the spirit of pre-existing parties, or of parties springing out of the question itself."¹⁸

These statements, however, were merely preludes to his real reasons for the distrust of the people: the ease with which they are ruled by their passions. "The passions, . . . of the public", he said, would sit in judgment. But it is the reason alone of the public that ought to control and regulate the government. The passions ought to be controlled and regulated by the government."¹⁹

SPEECHMAKING

The distrust of the populace stemmed from these ideas, iterated many times during the course of Hamilton's life, not only in his writings, but also in his speaking; they are the key to his ethos. As is well known, it was his speaking that helped make Hamilton the power and statesman that he was. And his speeches, notably during the Constitutional debates, reveal his obsession with the weaknesses, if not the bestiality of the multitude, an aspect of his political philosophy seen so clearly in *The Federalist*. In the Federal Convention, for instance, he again said: "Take mankind as they are, and what are they governed by? Their passions. There may be in every government a few choice spirits, who may act from worthy motives: One great error is that we sup-

pose mankind more honest than they are. Our prevailing passions are ambition and interest; and it will ever be the duty of a wise government to avail itself of the passions, in order to make them subservient to the public good."²⁰

Although this tendency to be governed by passions would seem to be present in all mankind—if one is to judge by the above statement—quite obviously in the logic of Hamilton, his own class was happily exempt from it. Naturally then, Hamilton as a realist, as the upholder of property rights, as the espouser of a philosophy based on the rule of "the rich, the wise, the well-born", suggests that his class is the proper ruling one:

All communities divide themselves into the few and the many. The first are the rich and the well born, the other the mass of the people. The voice of the people has been said to be the voice of God; and however generally this maxim has been quoted and believed, it is not true to fact. The people are turbulent and changing; they seldom judge or determine right. Give, therefore, to the first class a distinct, permanent share in the government. They will check the unsteadiness of the second, and as they cannot receive any advantage by a change, they therefore will ever maintain good government. Can a mass of the people be supposed steadily to pursue the public good? Nothing but a permanent body can check the imprudence of democracy. Their turbulent and uncontrollable despotism, requires checks.²¹

Such an attitude on the part of the statesman hardly augured well for a democratic philosophy since quite definitely the right of the people to govern themselves in a representative government is missing in the above declaration.

Not only was he against a democratic society, but further speaking revealed that he was against a republican society as well. This is well documented in the following excerpt from one of his speeches in the Convention as reported by Madison:

Hamilton acknowledged himself

not to think favorably of republican government; but addresses his remarks to those who did think favorably of it, in order to prevail on them to tone their government as high as possible. He professed himself to be as zealous an advocate for liberty as any man whatever; and trusted he should be as willing a martyr to it, though he differed as to the form in which it was most eligible . . . It was certainly true, that nothing like an equality of property existed; that an inequality would exist as long as liberty existed, and that it would unavoidably result from that very liberty itself. This inequality of property constituted the great and fundamental distinction in society.²²

In applying the criterion of liberty to the concept of equality Hamilton found the latter wanting. Liberty, therefore, was to be sought and espoused but this liberty was to be nourished by the inequality of property. He applauded this idea because, as a result of it, he saw even the mild republicanism, which was then coming into being, further diluted. "While property continues to be pretty equally divided", he said in the Convention, "and a considerable share of information pervades the community, the tendency of the people's suffrages will be to elevate merit even from obscurity. As riches increase and accumulate in few hands, as luxury prevails in society, virtue will be in a greater degree considered as only a graceful appendage of wealth and the tendency of things will be to depart from the republican standard."²³ And for this he was grateful.

One might say here, however, that doubtless all of this, and more, was asserted by Hamilton, but certain allowances had to be made for practicing politicians and statesmen; they must have a certain amount of license when dealing with ideas. To this one might answer that Hamilton not only talked against the people and a democratic society, but that he attempted overt action against them as well. This is nowhere better illustrated than in his attempts to the extreme of destroying government in order to defeat

Jefferson in 1800. After the defeat of the Federalists in the New York elections and when victory for Jefferson seemed imminent, it was Hamilton who wrote Governor Jay suggesting tactics to keep the Federalists in power. "In times like these," he stated, "it will not do to be over-scrupulous." Whatever was needed should be undertaken "to prevent an atheist in religion and a fanatic in politics from getting possession of the helm of state."²⁴

THE SUMMING-UP

It can be readily seen then, that Alexander Hamilton was an orator, statesman and politician whose ideas on democracy and the people were formed by looking over past history, there to discover that man was essentially incapable of self-government; and this was largely due to ignorance, selfishness and lack of self-control. This idea of the incompetence of man manifested itself in both his philosophic cogitations and articulations, and in his attempts to put theory into practice.

From the philosophic viewpoint, since he did not believe that human nature, as he had observed it in the past, would change in the future, he could only conclude that the common man, to put it mildly, was untrustworthy. Hence he felt an inherent dislike for democratic processes.

Practically he tried to put this theory into the law of the land when he attempted to deny political equali-

ty to the people by removing them as far as possible from political power. This was to be accomplished by making the national government a stronger one through the utilization of the following: first, the executive was to hold office for life, or during good behavior; second, senators would also hold office in the same manner as the president; third, both the president and the senators would be chosen by electors, rather than by the people; and finally, the people themselves would choose the electors. These ideas, if they had been put into practice, would have insured a strong government, administered by a ruling hierarchy, thus leaving the people out of direct political participation. To this end, too, it has been seen during the election of 1800, that he was prepared to take measures which were much stronger than mere talk.

Couple to all the above Hamilton's conceptions of the importance of property, and his work for the upholding of government by "the rich, the wise, and the well-born," and one can only conclude that he was against the idea of both the humanness and the humaneness of man. It thus is not difficult to assert that the prevailing attitude about the character and good will of Hamilton—about his ethos in short—is the correct one. Is it any wonder then, that the job of cleansing him is more than difficult, and that "the liberals . . . have despised Hamilton and the conservatives have rejected him?"²⁵

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¹⁴Thomas Jefferson, *The Works of Thomas Jefferson*, (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1904-05), I, 165.

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¹⁸*Ibid.*

¹⁹*Ibid.*

²⁰*Ibid.*, I, 1408.

²¹*Ibid.*, 401.

²²*Ibid.*, 1904 ed., I, 409-10.

²³*Ibid.*, II, 26.

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A Survey For Speech and Hearing Defectiveness

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The classroom communication test was employed to survey a large college-age population for speech and hearing defectiveness, its purpose being to give information quickly and without specially-trained examiners. This study presents information which shows the degree to which such a survey compares with the judgments of trained speech correctionists.

The idea of a speech and hearing survey of a large population, employing no subjective judgment nor a large staff of trained speech correctionists, is an engaging one. Could this be done through classroom instructors regardless of subject taught, and if the obtained scores could be depended upon to differentiate between good and poor speakers and listeners, it would be worthwhile in institutions where the survey of a large population is a very tedious undertaking. The usual method of interviewing thousands of students requires a large staff of experts and endless hours of time.

A previous article (1) describes a procedure by which speech and listening efficiency can be measured in a classroom situation. Although the purpose of that article was to describe a procedure and give some evidence of reliability and validity, it was also stated that a survey for speech and hearing defectiveness might be one of its uses. In 1958 this procedure was actually used as a survey with a group of some six hundred students enrolled in a fundamentals of speech course. Whereas the criterion of validity in the previous study was the over-all rating of speech efficiency given by the classroom instructor without speech correction training, this study presents a more searching evaluation of

validity involving speech correctionists.

The principle of the talker-listener test of speech and hearing adequacy is that any defectiveness in speaking will make it more difficult for listeners to correctly identify the words spoken. Thus, if a speaker lisps, the listener group will record more errors in word reception. If a speaker talks with a dialect, local or foreign, a greater number of listener errors will result. If a speaker possesses good articulation and voice, a smaller number of listener errors will result. A group of speakers, using messages of equal communication value,* will then rank themselves in order of efficiency, based on the extent to which they can transmit spoken words correctly to a listener group.

In this study each instructor was responsible for testing his own class or classes in the room in which the class met regularly. He reported all scores back to a central office. The procedure was similar to the one previously described with one difference. Instead of using a rotating row single listening panel, each class was divided into two separate groups. Each sub-group operated as an independent section. Since most of the classes enrolled twenty students, each sub-section numbered ten. These two sub-groups were seated in the two back rows of the classroom, and the

two speaker chairs, one for each section, were placed in the front of the room, separating the speakers from the listener panels by a distance of from 12 to 15 feet. If the room in which the class met was too shallow to permit this separation, the speaker chairs were placed so that they were separated by a diagonal crossing of the lateral dimension of the room. When the testing was begun, each sub-group sent one of its number to the speaker chairs. Thus, two speakers alternated in reading test lines to the remainder of the groups; each speaker read six lines of four words

* The procedure, rather than a message set, is emphasized in this study. Although the messages used were the same as those reported in the earlier article, a number of intelligibility test lists might have been used. For speaker evaluation word lists must have equal communication value. This can be established through actual trial; the means of each word list from talker-listener drills must be observed to be within chance range of the mean of the entire group. The word lists used in this study fulfill this requirement and have been reported to correlate highly with two other intelligibility tests in actual classroom communication trials.

each. Since the time needed to read a line from the test was about five seconds, each listening panel had ten seconds to write down the spoken line; the process was almost continuous and the whole class tested in thirty minutes or so. Each instructor scored papers for his class. The speaker score, in per cent of words transmitted correctly, was the total number of words, twenty-four, heard by nine listeners. A word was heard incorrectly when the recorded word was not the same as the spoken word; spelling was not counted an error if the word could be identified. The listener score was the number

of words heard correctly from the speech of nine speakers. Ninety per cent of the heard words, of course, would be common to all listeners, so that the equating of communication word lists would be less important in evaluating listening than in speech.

When all of the talker and listener scores for six hundred students had been turned in, the process of re-examination was undertaken. It was decided that, if the survey were to reveal those needing speech and hearing assistance, those persons might be found in the bottom twenty per cent of the distributions. Those in the top four fifths might be passed as less in need of remedial attention. However, in order to establish the validity of the survey, it was desirable to compare the bottom twenty per cent with the top twenty per cent. If the survey were capable of picking those who needed help, there should be differences between those falling in the top and bottom fifth of the distributions of scores. The top two speakers and the bottom two speakers were selected from each class on the basis of scores; similarly the top listeners and the bottom listeners were selected for re-examination.

The type of re-examination posed a problem. The conventional articulation tests are not suited to an adult population, for very few college freshmen will present the consonant omissions and substitutions of childhood. If such tests were included in re-examination, almost all persons would have perfect scores or high scores. It was decided, then, to use two re-examination techniques that would be reasonably objective and yet permit a broader range of scor-

VOICE	POOR						GOOD	
General	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Nasal	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Harsh	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Weak	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
ARTICULATION								
General	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Vowel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Consonant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

TABLE I. INTELLIGIBILITY COMPARED TO RATINGS IN VOICE AND ARTICULATION TRAITS

VOICE	T20	B20	r	T20	B20	r
General	5.45	4.62*	.43	5.32	3.88*	.88
Nasal	5.10	4.67	.20	5.26	4.46*	.48
Harsh	5.87	5.21	.35	5.05	3.63*	.72
Weak	5.74	4.95*	.52	5.16	3.46*	.83
ARTICULATION						
General	5.52	4.23*	.60	5.37	4.13*	.87
Vowel	5.32	4.08*	.58	5.26	4.33*	.70
Consonant	5.55	4.31*	.53	5.32	3.96*	.88

* Significant at the 1% level of confidence.

ing. The first was a rating scale of speech traits given below:

The ratings of nasal, harsh, and weak voice were "good" when these qualities were absent, since they must be rated negatively.

The second evaluation was more specific. It was assumed that the principal error of local dialect was vowel substitution; if this were true, one might expect more errors here than in other traits and they could be more reliably checked. Therefore, a list of sixty "error prone" words, taken from previous studies of dialectal misarticulations in class, was read by each person re-examined. Some of the words on the list were: wish, king, near, dear, beg, ranch, chance, fair, care, north, order, hard, hired, pretty, sure, tired, send, towel, many, and others. Only vowel errors were checked, and an error was declared when the pronunciation given was not one listed in the Kenyon and Knott *Pronouncing Dictionary of American English* (2). Only a substitution or omission of a vowel was considered an error. Because of difficulty in agreement between judges, distorted vowels were not counted as errors.

All re-examination was done by persons trained in speech correction. One section was checked by interview by members of the staff of the University of Illinois Speech Clinic. Another section was checked by the writer by interview. A third section was recorded on acetate discs and judgments subsequently made. All re-examination was "blind"; no per-

son involved in the re-examination knew if the person being checked was a member of the top or bottom twenty per cent. On the examination of vowel errors from recorded samples the agreement between two examiners was indicated by a correlation of .94.

RESULTS

One hundred and sixty-four college students with high or low intelligibility scores and one hundred and eighty-nine students with high or low listening scores, screened from an original population of more than six hundred, were re-examined to determine the adequacy of the classroom speech and hearing survey. The results of the ratings of voice and articulation efficiency are shown in Table I.

In the two sections reported in Table I it may be seen that all fourteen comparisons made by the judges show higher ratings for persons with good intelligibility scores and lower ratings for those with low intelligibility scores. Twelve of the fourteen comparisons are significant at the 1% level of confidence. Two are not significant — the ratings of harshness and nasality in one group; however, in the other group even these are significant differences. The reported correlations between ratings and intelligibility scores indicate a relationship that is consistent.

The evaluation of speakers by vowel error demonstrates an even more substantial differentiation. Table 2 below indicates the relationship

TABLE II. CLASSROOM INTELLIGIBILITY COMPARED TO A VOWEL ERRORS COUNT

	SECTION A	SECTION B	SECTION C
T20 errors	9.00	5.26	8.31
B20 errors	17.17	12.10	13.52
S.D.T20	3.61	3.62	2.66
S.D.B20	6.58	6.15	5.68
t	4.86	5.47	4.18
r	.82	.86	.80

between top and bottom twenty per cent in terms of vowel errors.

In all three sections tested, two by interview and one from recorded speech samples, there were significant differences between the number of vowel substitutions and omissions made by those in the bottom twenty per cent when compared with the top twenty per cent. The correlations between the intelligibility test scores and the count of vowel error are all high. Although vowel errors are made by both groups, those in the bottom of the distribution made almost twice as many.

Pure frequency audiometric examinations were given to all of those whose listening scores placed them either in the top or bottom twenty per cent of the distribution. Although threshold audiometry accounts for but a part of the listening function, it is a basic part. It was believed that a person with a pronounced loss would most certainly find himself in the bottom twenty per cent of the group; however, there were no severe losses in this group. A hearing loss was defined as a single frequency with a loss of 30 db or more or two frequencies with 20 db or more loss. Thirty-five of the ninety-nine persons falling in the bottom twenty per cent had such a loss. Only eleven of the ninety persons in the top twenty per cent had such a loss. The incidence of 35% compared to 12% is a significant difference. One might wonder how eleven persons with hearing loss managed to be in the top twenty per cent. The threshold measure of hearing does not consider experience and training; since these were all mild losses, it is possible that the

better listening was a result of experience that improved the ability to use hearing. Further study of the listener skills is indicated.

CONCLUSIONS

1. The classroom communication test administered as a survey for speech and hearing defectiveness differentiates between good and poor speakers to the extent that it agrees with the ratings of voice and articulation skills made by experts in speech correction.

2. The classroom communication test is apparently sensitive to the vowel errors that make up a major part of local dialect. Those whose intelligibility scores are low (bottom 20%) make twice as many vowel errors in speech as those in the top 20%. The test differentiates between those with the slight defectiveness of local dialect and good speech.

3. The test differentiates between those with slight hearing loss and those with good hearing. Three times as many persons with hearing loss may be found in the bottom 20% as are found in the top 20%.

4. The classroom communication test, used as a survey for speech and hearing defectiveness, may be useful in screening large populations quickly and without workers with special training, so that persons needing remedial instruction may be located.

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IT'S MORE FUN TO KNOW

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1. Do people tend to be consistently open or close minded?

YES!

Janis and Field in a study of "A Behavioral Assessment of Persuasibility—Consistency of Individual Differences" in *Sociometry*, 1956, 19, 241-259 report a correlation of + .81 in responses to ten widely different subjects.

2. Is learning from listening largely a matter of intelligence?

NO!

Fergen's study reported in *Dissertation Abstracts*, 1955, XV, 1, 89 "... At no rate of oral presentation does the relationship appear substantial enough to justify the use of an intelligence test as an instrument for the prediction of listening comprehension."

3. Can a person communicate how he feels by the way he looks?

YES!

Dusenbury and Knower found that "Interpretation of the facial expression of emotional attitudes and reactions can be made with a high degree of accuracy." See *Qt. Jr. of Sp.* 1938, 24, 436.

4. Is Speech Education a new subject in schools?

NO!

"... in the 12th Egyptian dynasty about 3,000 B.C., a school boy in the Valley of the Nile wrote into his papyrus copybook which have come down to us the *Precepts of Kegemni and Ptah Hotep*. Found in the tomb of an ancient Egyptian King and preserved in the National Library at Paris, this is the oldest manuscript in existence. According to its own preface, it is a textbook for use "in instructing the ignorant in the knowledge of Speech." Weaver, *Qt. Jr. of Sp.* 1939, 25, 188.

BOOKS: Some Of My Best Friends Use Debate Texts

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Editor's Note: This review article is the fourth of a series appearing in this Journal. The author changes with each issue. Each article reveals several books (occasionally some papers also) as they relate to a specified area. Interested contributors should contact the Editor.

The debate coach or director of forensics is the "salt of the earth." He attracts the gifted student and gives him special training and experience in rigorous and logical thought. Often this is done at considerable expense of time and energy on the part of both student and staff member. Once enmeshed in the great variety of debate activities, neither student nor staff member is quite free of a special feeling for debate. Like the old fire horse who attends the fires after retirement, the student and faculty member keep some contact with debating after other duties call them elsewhere. It is almost inevitable that those who have suffered and exulted together should feel some friendship for each other. Many of those for whom I have the most respect in the speech field have had some experience in the debate area.

A couple of years ago Jim Wilson, then the debate coach at Morris Harvey College, came into the office for a talk. He wondered who used debate texts. Did they use debate texts in their classes? Are texts used in coaching the debate teams? Are judges familiar with the information in debate texts? What substitutes are used if debate texts are not in use? He decided to try to find out.

The results of Wilson's study are

reported in the Winter Issue of *The Register*¹ of the American Forensic Association. He found that most of the people in debate use a debate text in some way in their training or debating. He estimates that about seventy percent of our colleges and universities offer formal courses in debating. Ninety percent of these schools use a textbook. Half of those schools which do not have a formal course participate in intercollegiate debate anyway. Almost all of the schools which had discontinued the use of a textbook considered this a temporary measure. It would seem safe to conclude that debate staff members in general consider the debate text important enough to use in their classes and in their intercollegiate debate training programs.

Let us look briefly at the three texts which had been adopted by the most institutions at the time of Wilson's study. These texts are Ewbank and Auer;² Potter;³ and McBurney, O'Neill and Mills.⁴ Only one of these, Potter, is a relatively new book. It appeared in 1954. McBurney, *et. al.*, is an extensive revision of a book which appeared in 1941.

Ewbank and Auer's, *Discussion and Debate: Tools of a Democracy*, was reported as the debate text adopted by more schools in Wilson's study than any other text. Although most

textbook writers seem to recognize the close relationship between discussion and debate, this is the only one of the three being considered here which treats both extensively in the same volume. Even though it would seem an ambitious project to treat discussion and debate in this way, these authors do not stop here. Only the last half of their book treats directly with discussion and debate. The first half of the book deals with "A Point of View," "The Problem," and "The Listener." Under these headings appear such subdivisions as "How Individuals in Groups Think," "How Individuals Think," "Analyzing the Audience," and "Persuasion."

The book is at least three books in one. One of the books might be called a psychology of speech. The other two are fairly standard presentations of discussion and debate. Wilson's study did not ask questions about what parts of the book are used most by those who have adopted it. Although many of our debate teachers or coaches may not feel that they have time to include much of the psychology of speech or of the audience in their classes and coaching sessions, such additions would probably improve their product. It is doubtful that many of us know enough about how individuals and groups think and how and why they act to teach this part of the subject. In this respect Ewbank and Auer have given us a book which may instruct the teacher as well as the student.

This strength might also be one of the major drawbacks to the book, however. I suspect that many coaches either skip this part of the book or else assign it for outside reading without discussing it in class. Others assign these parts of the book for graduate study only.

The separation of knowledge common to both discussion and debate under a single heading called "The Problem" is an unusual feature of the text. This seems like the economi-

cal thing to do, but anyone picking up the text and turning to the section on debate would find it quite shallow without such information as defining, research, analysis, evidence, argument, and fallacies. These are found in a section on the problem. We hope that the debate coach is able to pick from the entire text such chapters as fit into his course.

The text is a skillful blending of classical rhetoric and modern psychology. The reading lists at the end of each chapter and the references in the footnotes are excellent for the student or teacher who wants an elaboration of these principles.

The strong points of Ewbank and Auer's text are (1) its broad coverage of debate, discussion, and the psychology of speech; (2) the attempt to draw the attention of the teacher and the student to the audience; (3) the blending of classical rhetoric and modern psychology; and (4) the excellent exercises and reading lists.

The pronounced weaknesses of the first edition were corrected in the second edition. Features which might still bother some teachers are (1) the treatment of discussion and debate in a single text; (2) the oblique relationship of the chapters on thinking, audience analysis, and persuasion to debate as they teach it; and (3) the separation of information vital to debate into a section common to both debate and discussion in this text.

The second of the three debate texts being considered here is *Argumentation and Debate* by McBurney, O'Neill and Mills. Not to be outdone by Ewbank and Auer's addition of "Tools of a Democracy" to the main title, McBurney, O'Neill and Mills added the subtitle of "Techniques of a Free Society." All three authors, McBurney, O'Neill and Mills, show the importance of argumentation and debate in a free society in chapters attributed to them. This is especially true of the first two chapters on "The Study of

Argumentation and Debate" and "The Responsibilities of the Advocate," and of the eighteenth and nineteenth on "Kinds of Debate" and "Debate as Training." This reminds us a little of the school books of the early nineteenth century which included "United States" in their titles. The new books of the future will have to be "atomic" or "interstellar" or at least "scientific." Actually the authors show the importance of argumentation and debate to our way of life without overworking the point.

The text quotes frequently such authorities on rhetoric as Whately, Aristotle, Campbell and John Quincy Adams. The examples are often taken from such famous speeches as William Wirt's speech in the case of Gibbons vs. Ogden, Webster's speeches in the White murder trial, Jeremiah Black's defense of the right of trial by jury, or from Lincoln's debate with Douglas at Galesburg.

In his chapter on "The Structure of Argument," McBurney applies his knowledge of the enthymeme to debate. It is unusual to find such a complete treatment of this subject in a debate text. Debate coaches might find a more complete study of the enthymeme an aid in their work. They would have to supplement this chapter with McBurney's article on the same subject in *Speech Monographs*.⁵

Another often slighted side of debating is elaborated by Mills in his chapter on "The Advocate as Speaker." The treatment of "The Ethos of the Advocate" brings more of classical rhetoric to the study of debate. Many of the commonly heard criticisms of debating can be traced to our failure to develop the ethos of our speakers. Consciously or unconsciously judges of all kinds either want to believe the speaker or else they do not want to believe him. Maybe our judges would seem more fair if the debaters gave some attention to ethos.

McBurney, O'Neill and Mills give

a chapter to "Discussion as Preparation for Debate." This is not a chapter on how to conduct discussions, but shows the relationship of discussion and debate, and tells how discussions may be used in the beginning stages of debate preparation. This text does not disagree with Ewbank and Auer on the place of discussion.

The exercises are brief but well chosen. There are no lists of readings at the ends of the chapters. The footnotes might be used as a substitute for a reading list. These would not be sufficient for extensive outside reading.

Some of the chapters written by O'Neill seem designed to show the relationship between debate and law. Legal examples are given and differences between debate and legal procedures are pointed out. This might make those who have a number of pre-law students especially happy, but for the others the legal aspects which differ from debate procedure may be explained too thoroughly. Legal tests of evidence, for example, are not all of equal value to the debater.

The applications of modern psychology to debating which run throughout Ewbank and Auer are concentrated mainly in the chapter on "Motivation in Argument" in McBurney, O'Neill and Mills. A more continuous thread of the results of quantitative research might be used to support the classical rhetorical theory which is presented so well.

The strong points of this text might be said to include (1) its unexciting but tried and true standard approach to debating, (2) its use of good models of public speaking for its examples, (3) its firm foundation on classical rhetoric, and (4) its attempt to return the enthymeme and ethos to conscious use by the debater.

Some of the features which might bother some of the users of debate texts are (1) the absence of reading lists and the scarcity of foot-

notes, (2) the emphasis on the legal aspects of debating, (3) the lack of integration of the findings of psychology with the other material of the book, (4) the lack of apparent reason for the order of the chapters, and (5) the emphasis on briefing as a "must" for debaters.

The third of this list of "best sellers" was shown by Wilson's study to be equal to the previous book in popularity. How much of this popularity could be traced to its being sponsored by Tau Kappa Alpha would be difficult to guess. The national council of this organization voted in 1950 to appoint a committee to edit such a textbook. The committee, under the chairmanship of David Potter, invited twenty-five experienced teachers to contribute manuscripts on various phases of debating. The finished product, *Argumentation and Debate*, was copyrighted in 1954.

In contrast to the other two texts which had appeared in previous editions, this text has appeared in only its first edition. No attempt will be made to point out the small changes which the authors undoubtedly are looking forward to correcting in the revision.

The plan of the Potter book limits it rather strictly to debating in its various aspects. Short statements indicate agreement of the authors with the relationship between discussion and debate, expressed more fully in the other two texts, without elaborating these views. A section of the book is entitled "Forms of Discussion and Debate," but discussion is not an important factor in the section. Footnotes refer the reader to McBurney and Hance, and Ewbank and Auer for information on discussion.

The four chapters in the section on "Directing Debate" are an innovation which might be welcomed by those who are preparing teachers. Many others would not use this section in the undergraduate classes.

The classification chart for parliamentary law, found in the appendix,

is another feature not often found in the debate text. It serves a useful purpose, since several of the types of debate explained in the text require some knowledge of parliamentary law.

The first chapter on "Our Debate Tradition," and the last chapter on "History of Tau Kappa Alpha" are interesting pages of history which are probably skipped by those who use the book.

There are six chapters in this text which stand out and recommend the book to me. Ehninger's chapter on "The Logic of Argument" is rather deep for an undergraduate, but is full of essential information. The two chapters on "Refutation" and "Rebuttal" by McGinnis are also enlightened treatments of vital subjects in debating. Redding's two chapters on "Composition of the Debate Speech" and "Presentation of the Debate Speech" are chapters listed by the editor as special contributions of the text to debate. They seem to live up to their billing. The chapter on "Types of Debate" has four authors. Each tells briefly the major features of a type of debate. This chapter should help some of those who deplore the lack of variety in debate programs. Sufficient details are included for those who wish to try some style of debate other than the conventional style in class or in debate practice sessions.

The Tau Kappa Alpha debate text is rather obviously written by a number of people. All of the chapters do not maintain the high standards of those mentioned above. The book has evidently been popular enough to deserve revision. We would expect the over-all plan to be retained, but with some chapters omitted and the number of authors reduced. The almost complete avoidance of psychology in the text might be corrected in a new version.

Some of my best friends use debate texts. They will probably always be willing to debate the advisability of using a debate text and what text

to use. Twenty-two different texts were reported to Wilson⁶ as being in use now. Outstanding among those still in print are such texts as those by Baird,⁷ Courtney and Capp,⁸ Bra-

den and Brandenburg,⁹ and Foster.¹⁰ Whatever text is finally chosen by the debate teacher or coach, he will want to adapt it to his own peculiar views on the subject.

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WINTER ISSUE — JANUARY — 1960

BOOKS: *Seekers and Persuaders in a Brave New World*

ROGER LEE BAUMEISTER — ELMHURST COLLEGE

REFLECTIONS FROM THE RETIRED

NUMBER FOUR

Retire To Active Life*

J. M. O'NEILL



J. M. O'Neill was born in Victor, New York, December 17, 1881. He attended public school at Victor High School and Canandaigua Academy; received the Bachelor of Arts degree from Dartmouth in 1907 and was granted honorary degrees from Boston College (LL.D.) in 1952, St. Michael's College (LL.D.) in 1952, and Fairfield University (L.H.D.) in 1953. J. M. O'Neill's teaching career started in 1909 at Dartmouth College. He left that institution in 1913 and joined the faculty of the University of Wisconsin where, eventually, he became Chairman of the Department of Speech. Professor O'Neill also served as Chairman of the Department of Speech at the University of Michigan (1927-1935) and at Brooklyn College (1935-1952). J. M. O'Neill ranks among the fifteen most frequent contributors to the journals of the Speech Association of America. His bibliography includes twelve books in the field of speech. In 1915 he became the first President of The National Association of Teachers of Speech—now known as the Speech Association of America.

When I retired from teaching in 1952, I had the experience of forty-six years as a teacher on which to reflect. So far I have been too busy to spend much time reflecting, and nearly five decades of accumulated "data" on which to reflect makes any reasonable period of reflection a sort of memory grab-bag unless preceded by careful selection. I have decided that the most important link between what I am pleased to call my "work" as a teacher needs a bit of explanation;

throughout most of the forty-six years of professional occupation in education my contribution (if recognizable) to the institutions in which I was working, would seem to be, not in classroom teaching, but in administration, committee, and conference activity. But in classroom my favorite subject was always argumentation and debate—the *why* and *how* of controversy.

I like and respect controversy—well-informed, courteous, good-tempered argument. I join Kerr of the New York *Herald Tribune* in his

recently expressed regret that "controversy" has become a dirty word. Controversy is inevitable in any free society — not an inevitable weakness, but an inevitable, and invaluable, source of strength. Controversy, debate, argument is the *only* way in which a free society can move — either to better days or to worse, according to how competently the debaters conduct the controversy, and essentially more important still, because their greater number gives them all of the power to make the decisions of society, is the competence of the readers and listeners to understand and react intelligently to any particular controversy. I think it is *always shameful* when a man or a book is denied a hearing on the ground that he or it is "controversial." This does not mean that every man and every book is entitled to the attention of every group or every individual, any time, anywhere, under any and all circumstances. But the decision against the man or the book should always be, frankly and openly, on something *wrong* (in the opinion of the deciding man or society) inherently, in substance, in truth, or morals, never because either man or book is *controversial*. Even a man who is in general a jack-ass should be allowed in any free country to speak his piece, to *those who want to listen to him*, unless he or his piece is unspeakable. Any free person or free society must be, by definition, free to listen or not to listen, to read or not to read, under whatever limitations the person or the society sets for itself. Every civil government, and organized society, either free or unfree, exercises some restriction on speech and press, holds some writing and speaking so antisocial as to be prohibited. Absolute freedom of speech and press (even though it is advocated by some of the Justices on our Supreme Court) belongs only in a state of anarchy. Any man who refuses to attend to argument or controversy, is just "thumbing a ride" in any free society; he should move to Rus-

sia where he will not be allowed to hear or read much that is genuinely controversial.

Since man began to have differences of opinion, he has discovered only two ultimate ways of settling the controversy, large or small, that will arise if the difference of opinion is between men or groups who are articulate and free. The settlement, if one is ever arrived at, and whoever makes it, will be either by physical combat, with fists, guns, clubs, or bombs; or it will be by argument, debate, controversy, with words impregnated with evidence, linked in logic, or lighted with potent (if not with what Woodrow Wilson called "handsome") emotions. These are the ways in which men or nations settle their controversies. It seems natural that free nations prefer controversy, and totalitarian nations prefer combat or threats of combat. Unfortunately, the man or nation who prefers fighting to argument can usually force his favorite method on his opponent; it is not safe always to turn around and walk away leaving one's back exposed to knife or bullet.

So I like and respect debate, controversy, and I am unimpressed by statements that controversy never settled anything. This view it seems to me must rest on either an imperfect understanding of the nature and purpose of competent controversy, or else on an inadequate knowledge of the effect of controversy on human history.

I once remarked to the members of a conference that when I retired at the age of seventy, I retired to active life. I spoke in all seriousness and was greeted by such laughter as would have pleased a professional humorist. I meant it. I have "worked" about as much and as steadily since 1952 as I did in the forty-six years preceding that date. I shall disregard the jeers of any former colleagues who say that that was not enough to interfere with anyone's vacation. It was and is "enough, and 'twill serve." Beginning shortly before my retirement and continuing

ever since I have been writing and lecturing on essentially controversial subjects; I have published four "trade" books, all controversial, and a number of similar articles, and have lectured in all parts of the United States, including four trips from Connecticut to the Pacific coast. My controversy, like that of most Americans over our nation's foreign policy, "stops at the water's edge."

Most of the readers of this journal will sometime come to the day when trying to teach sophomores the difference between argument and denunciation will be over. I hope the succeeding years spent on this planet will be years of genuine happiness. I think the best possible recipe (after keeping the Ten Commandments) is: be sure to have ready, all prepared for, some absorbing work related to some real interest that has been with you long enough to have matured, start on it immediately on retirement, and keep at it to the end — which such work will almost inevitably postpone. The saddest and shortest periods of retirement seem

to be those of men who retire from many years in education or other time consuming occupation to "sit on the porch in a rocking chair to wait for the undertaker." I once heard a man who was acquainted with the vocabulary of merchandising refer to such a sitter as a "returned empty." No one who ever had life enough in him to be an effective (i.e. continuously employed) teacher of speech should ever become a "returned empty."

Any live member of a free society who (a) has been for any considerable period a teacher of speech, and who (b) believes in anything worth promoting or defending, can always take his ideas into the market place where such wares are exchanged, and offer them to those who are willing to examine ideas before accepting or rejecting them. This program will improve general health, mental and physical, will contribute some of that ferment to the free society which is needed to keep it from going stale, and it *may* even be profitable in usable money.

WINTER ISSUE — JANUARY — 1960

Reflections From The Retired Frank M. Rarig
(Fourteenth President of the Speech Association of America)

State Association News

MARCELINE ERICKSON
MANKATO STATE COLLEGE

The year 1959 marks the thirtieth anniversary of the Oklahoma Speech Association. Each year this association sponsors two major projects in which the teachers of the state are invited to work, share, and learn. These two events are the Speech Educators' Conference and the State Teachers' Meeting. The Speech Educators' Conference will be held on the campus of the University of Oklahoma in early October. It will have two major objectives: (1) to coordinate more closely the training in oral communication skills from elementary through secondary, college, and professional levels, and (2) to share new theories, methods, materials, and techniques for this training. The four subject areas are Television and Radio, Public Address and Discussion, Drama and Interpretation, and Speech Correction.

In connection with the State Teachers' Meeting, the Oklahoma Speech Association sponsors a full program of meetings planned by the vice-presidents of elementary teachers, secondary teachers, college teachers, and speech correction teachers. The luncheon speaker will be Dr. Ralph G. Nichols, Head of the Department of Rhetoric, University of Minnesota. His subject will be "He Who Has Ears." The afternoon will be devoted to a special program in which Dr. Nichols will serve as resource person.

Geraldine Bertovick, Grosse Pointe High School, president of the Michigan Speech Association, states that "plans for the fall meeting at the General Motors Institute in Flint on October 10 include a general session—to be held in the afternoon—which will feature a panel on THE

HIGH SCHOOL SPEECH CURRICULUM. Members will be teachers who represent schools of various sizes with curricula varying from a single, one semester general course to a comprehensive program including public speaking, debate, dramatics, and radio. Section meetings in the morning will include a panel on TEACHING SPEECH VIA TELEVISION for radio-TV people. Members will include those who have taught such courses as discussion, parliamentary procedure, ancient rhetoric, and contemporary theater on educational or local commercial television stations. The theater-interpretation section will continue a discussion begun at last fall's meeting on PROBLEMS OF STAGING FOR ARENA THEATER. SPEECH IN TEACHER PREPARATION will be the problem under consideration by the general speech section. Elementary teachers, secondary teachers (in fields other than speech), and a college professor of education will act as resource people."

Other officers of the Michigan State Speech Association for 1959-1960, elected at their spring meeting held at the time of the Central States convention in Detroit, are: First Vice-President, Maurice Fall; Second Vice-President, Fred Alexander; Forcensic Council, James McMonagle. Program chairmen are as follows: General Speech (High School) Earl Sloan, (College) Bill Bos; Theater and Interpretation (High School) Dean Moltmaker, (College) Glen Wilson; Radio and Television (High School) James Mead, (College) Wayne Bundy.

This fall the Minnesota Educational Association has regional meetings

rather than a state-wide meeting so members of the Minnesota Association of Teachers of Speech should check their own regional MEA to see the time and place of speech meetings and luncheons. In some areas, there will be a separate speech meeting, and, in others, the speech teachers will meet with an English or Language Arts group.

The Minnesota Speech Association has been working steadfastly for certification of persons to teach speech. On July 13, Dr. Robert Wick, president of the state association, and Dr. Marceline Erickson, secretary-treasurer, testified before a hearing of the Minnesota State Board of Education on the matter. This is one of the final steps in the procedure required in the state of Minnesota for making a change in certification requirements. The group is asking that anyone teaching speech in the high schools of Minnesota have a major or minor in Speech. It has tried to establish the fact that Speech is an academic subject and that it has a content separate and distinct from English.

Mrs. Lucille H. Allen, president, reports that the tentative plans for the Missouri Speech Teachers Association are for a luncheon, business meeting, program, and group discussion meetings on Thursday, November 5, at the Sheraton-Jefferson Hotel, St. Louis. The program will be a reading-lecture, "The Ivory Tower of the Oral Interpreter," by Dr. Elizabeth Worrell, Northeast Missouri State Teachers College, Kirksville. Later, speech correctionists will meet under the direction of Dr. Charlotte Wells, University of Missouri. **THE NEW CURRICULUM GUIDE FOR SPEECH TEACHERS** will be presented to the classroom speech teachers by Dr. Ronald Reid and members of his committee. Mrs. Allen adds that "Our recommendations for certification of speech teachers will be ready for association approval at the state meeting."

On November 6, at the state convention of the Iowa Education Association, the Speech and Drama

luncheon will be held in the Garden Room of the Hotel Kirkwood. The speaker for the luncheon will be Dr. Arnold S. Gillette, Professor of Dramatic Art and Director of the University Theatre, State University of Iowa. His topic will be "Staging Plays with Minimum Scenery and Equipment." The luncheon at 12:15 will be preceded by the annual business meeting of the Iowa Speech Association at eleven in the morning.

Dr. Frederick Haberman, University of Wisconsin, will be the guest speaker for the speech luncheon meeting at the time of the Wisconsin Education Association in Milwaukee on Friday, November 6. The speech association will meet at Brooks Memorial Union, Marquette University. Following the address and business meeting, there will be two sectional meetings — one a **DEMONSTRATION DEBATE ON THE HIGH SCHOOL DEBATE QUESTION** (Marquette vs. University of Wisconsin): the other meeting will be a panel **THEATRE IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS**. Dr. Pauline Isaacson, president, reports that "TEPS took a very favorable attitude toward the material presented in relation to certification of teachers of speech by our committee. (Dr. Wynett Barnett, chairman, Dr. Gladys Borchers, and Mr. Joe Laine). At our executive board meeting last March we selected a committee to work on improving extra curricular speech participation in the high schools. Dr. Gladys Borchers heads the committee. We are contemplating a new committee, one to work toward getting schools to add speech to the curriculum. It is surprising how few schools offer a course. We feel that we should recommend allowing one semester of speech to substitute for one of the eight semesters of English."

Hazel Heiman reports that on April 18 a joint meeting of Speech and English teachers took place at the South Dakota School of Mines and Technology in Rapid City. The morning program consisted of a panel

of Speech and English teachers on A WELL-ROUNDED LANGUAGE ARTS PROGRAM IN THE HIGH SCHOOL, and in the afternoon speech teachers had buzz sessions on dramatics, oral interpretation, and the forensic program in South Dakota. The requirement of four years of English goes into effect in 1960. In November, the speech teachers will meet during the South Dakota Education Association meetings. The West River area meets in Spearfish and the East River area meets in Aberdeen. The English and Speech groups will meet jointly, too, in order to promote better relations and to revise the English Arts curriculum to meet the new requirements.

The North Dakota speech teachers have arranged to have an article relating to Speech in the Bulletin of High School Activities this year. At the speech session of the North Dakota Education Association, William Laabs, instructor in debate at Minot High School, will share his experiences at the International meet in Detroit, Michigan. Sister Barbara Ann of St. Mary's Central High of Bismarck will speak on "Speech in the curriculum."

Mrs. Virginia H. Floyd states that "the Nebraska State Speech Association met at the University of Nebraska for a business session, program, and coffee hour during the annual Fine Arts Festival at the University of Nebraska on April 25. A special standing committee consisting of Dr. Philip Kaye, chairman, Nebraska Wesleyan University; Dr. Maxine Trauernicht, University of Nebraska; and Mrs. Mary Lou Alexander, Lincoln High School brought in a fine report which the association adopted. Here are the major items in capsule: 1. appoint an editor of the Nebraska Speech Teachers Bulletin and start work on our bulletin (Nebraska has never had one); 2. appoint an executive secretary of the association to work under the direction of the President and Executive Committee; 3. adopt a temporary program of insti-

tutional and patron memberships to broaden financial base of the association; 4. undertake special projects such as special workshops, program of public relations, speech programs at district meetings of teachers. A fall meeting of the Nebraska Speech Association will be held at the University of Nebraska, October 24, in connection with the debate and discussion workshop. There will be a full day's meetings, with a luncheon, business meeting, a main speaker, and demonstration workshops."

The Illinois Speech Association will meet at Illinois State Normal University on November 6 and 7. There will be speech correction, college, and secondary school sectional meetings. Speech correction meetings have been planned by Marie Shere, Milton Eastman, and Glenn Taylor. They will include a panel on THE RELATION OF DELAYED SPEECH TO PHYSICAL AND MENTAL ANOMALIES; a symposium on AUDIOLOGY; and DEMONSTRATIONS OF INTERVIEWING TECHNIQUES FOR STUTTERING PROBLEMS. The college sections are being planned in FORENSICS by Earl E. Bradley, Southern Illinois University; in INTERPRETATION by Theodor Le Vander, Augustana College; and in THEATRE by E. G. Gabbard, Eastern Illinois University. The secondary school sectional meetings have been planned by Robert Johnston, Bill Buys, and William Vilhauer. The first sectional meeting will be used to INTERPRET THE RULES FOR CONTESTS SPONSORED BY THE ILLINOIS HIGH SCHOOL ASSOCIATION. A representative from the State Office will be present to answer questions. Other sectional meetings will be devoted to AN ANALYSIS OF THE HIGH SCHOOL SPEECH ILLS and POSSIBLE CURES FOR HIGH SCHOOL SPEECH ILLS.

This conference of the Illinois Speech Association also includes general sessions and a business meeting. A banquet will be held on Friday evening, November 6.

At a meeting of the Indiana Speech Association held last spring the following officers were elected: W. C. Redding, Purdue University, President; Juanita Jane Rucker, W. P. Chrysler High School, New Castle, Vice-President; M. A. Hicks, Purdue University, Secretary-Treasurer. The group had an excellent meeting and great enthusiasm was expressed for the syllabus prepared for the basic speech course in high school. Within the year the Indiana Speech Association will complete additional syllabi for drama, interpretation, debate, and radio.

The new officers of the Ohio Association of the College Teachers of Speech for 1959-1960 are: Dr. Raymond Yeager, Bowling Green State University, President; Dr. Austin J. Freely, John Carroll College, Vice-President; Dr. James Golden, Muskingum College, Secretary-Treasurer. Activities Committee includes the officers and the past president, Professor William Hall, Denison University; Dr. Thomas Ludlum, Capital University; Dr. Robert Crosby, Ohio Wesleyan University; and Professor Frank Alusow, Akron University.

The spring meeting was held at the Ohio State University Student Union on April 11. The afternoon panel dis-

cussion dealt with "The North Central Association and Teacher Certification in Speech." On the panel were Dr. George Lewis, Ohio State University (Chairman), Professor Willard Friedrich, Marietta College; Dr. Thomas Ludlum, Capital University; and Dr. Hugh Laughlin, Ohio University (representing the North Central Association).

The annual spring conference of the Kansas Speech Association was held May 2 at Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia. The Speech and Forensic Workshop included discussion relating to debate, teaching beginning speech, and oratory. The Dramatics and Interpretation Workshop included discussion relating to college training in dramatics, play production and the festival judge, dramatics and the high school, and preparing the student for Interpretation. Dr. William Conboy, the University of Kansas, president of the Kansas association, presided at the business meeting and general session. These subjects were presented at the general sessions: "Audio-Visual Aids for the Classroom Teacher"; "The Speech and Drama Program: Relations with Community and State"; "The High School Speech and Drama Program: Administrative Support."

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR

Letters commenting on articles appearing in this Journal should be sent directly to the editor. The purpose of these letters should be (1) to question content and/or (2) to provide further evidence in support of content. Permission to quote should be given by the writer. Copy deadlines are August 15, November 15, and February 15.

More Foreign Education Articles Needed

To the Editor:

Having been born in Germany, and being a "product" of the German public school system, the Borchers' article entitled "German Speech Education" (Volume X, Spring, 1959, Number 3) immediately caught my eye, and proved very interesting.

Only recently I finished work on a study concerned with accomplishments in the field of speech in German universities (which, by the way, has been mentioned in the *Quarterly Journal of Speech*). Thus I appreciate Dr. Borchers' personal experiences and her report even more. One of the most important implications of her work seems to lie in the fact that speech in the United States, as an academic area, has "matured" to such an extent that we can raise our sights and begin to look around. Interest in the current efforts of others, especially in other parts of the world, would appear to be an important indication of growth. It should enable us to judge more effectively work now being done in the United States.

There are many implications in the report submitted by Dr. Borchers, which need careful consideration by teachers and students in the area of speech. It would appear that individuals are considerably more important to the further development of speech in German universities than any properties of the area as such. It has been true for many centuries that European students are strongly influenced by the name, background, and status of certain professors. As in the case of Dr. Leyhausen, students tend to "desert" the cause once a leading figure in any given academic area dies.

From my own contact with the area of speech in German universities, and from Dr. Borchers' statements, I am forced to deduce that rather than finding a "movement" or a broad area of academic interest, speech has only made limited inroads into the German university curriculum. The most effective work has been accomplished by certain individuals mentioned by Dr. Borchers, who have been successful wherever they went. The task of convincing other academic areas, departments, and even universities to make work in speech a regular part of their academic efforts, would seem to have merely begun.

Dr. Borchers provides an excellent study of the background and development of speech education in Germany. Many speech teachers in the United States undoubtedly will be able to see the striking similarities to efforts in the United States. However, work in the United States now would seem to have outdistanced efforts in Germany. It is with good reason that Dr. Borchers points out the fact that German academicians are interested in further contacts with speech educators in the United States. In my own experience some of the most significant work in Germany has been done by professors who have had close contact with American speech teachers. Next year's international congress in the area of phonetics, to be held in Hamburg, Germany, should provide many opportunities along this line.

One of the outstanding areas covered by Dr. Borchers, and of importance to us, is the fact that German speech educators show an outstanding interest in what might be termed the "correct" use of their language. While it would seem to me that in the United States "effectiveness" per se, is of greater concern than a detailed study of the correct production of sounds, German universities seem to have carried their typically European concern with "form" and "standards" into this area as well. Interest in choric speaking, reading, interpretation (some of these efforts making use of material dating back to antiquity) would support this impression. Furthermore, statements made by Dr. Borchers concerning techniques and materials used in such areas as debate, discussion, and public speaking further tend to suggest concern with the correct production

of speech sounds, appreciation of esthetic values, and general appreciation of the properties of one's language. Techniques mentioned by Dr. Borchers point out that a great concern is shown with "precision" drilling. Some of the methods remind one of work done in the United States a number of years ago. While I can see a distinct need to gain a greater appreciation for language and its properties than the average American student possesses, it would seem equally important not to become stymied in too formal an approach. Of interest was such work as the efforts by Dr. Wittsack of Frankfurt, with whom I am personally acquainted, in such a "practical" field as the use of the telephone.

One of the most challenging ideas was the fact that Dr. Borchers pointed out that almost every German speech teacher she met was able to exemplify what he taught. While I realize that many of my colleagues would not agree with such a sweeping statement, I nevertheless feel that as in every other area of academic endeavor, the example of the professor who excels in the application of the subject he teaches is an important part of the teaching process. I feel that those of us teaching public address, discussion, etc., must be able to excel in the oral presentation of ideas.

It would seem to me that the future is more than bright for efforts now underway in Germany. The list of subjects discussed during the National Convention of 1954 (Marburg, Germany) is impressive, and certainly should be of interest to American speech educators. It would furthermore seem that some of the methods of teaching, as explained by Dr. Borchers, could do much to further an atmosphere of greater freedom, coupled with a desire for individual investigation and a critical attitude. If these find expression in the classroom, this feature of American education often lacking in the European university could become an effective means of student experience. My only hope is that you will be able to give us many more fine articles of this type about the work done in other parts of the world, and I wholeheartedly agree with Dr. Borchers that the result would be "new dignity" given to the field in which we work.

FRED L. CASMIR
Assistant Professor
Department of Speech
George Pepperdine College
Los Angeles, California

Behavioral Feedback?

To the Editor:

I was quite interested in the article by N. B. Young in the Central States Speech Journal (Certain Effects on Vocal Pitch of Frequency Modulated Instantaneous Auditory Feedback). The study of the effects of the manipulation of the pitch of auditory feedback upon the speaker's vocal pitch contributes still more information to our understanding of the speech act.

The major finding of the study, i.e., the speaker's vocal pitch may follow or oppose the direction of modification of the pitch of auditory feedback (or fail to be effected by such adjustment) was particularly interesting. In light of the consistency with which the rate of speech is delayed by delayed auditory feedback, and the loudness of speech in proportion to the loudness of auditory sidetone (effects consistent enough to warrant their use as tests of malingering by audiologists), the inconsistency of the speaker's behavior with regard to modified pitch feedback is most intriguing.

However, one finding of the study, the consistency with which a given speaker either follows or opposes the direction of the modified pitch (but does not usually make both reactions during the course of the experimental conditions) needs further experimental study. The failure to reject the interaction (TxS) by the F test indicates that the manner in which a speaker reacts to modified pitch of auditory feedback may be a stable phenomenon.

One further observation should be made. The necessity for the use of both the F test and the signed-ranks test on the data was not clear from the discussion in the article. If the F test failed to reject the null hypothesis, the signed-ranks test (Wilcoxin?), a less powerful statistical instrument, should not have been expected to reject the null hypothesis.

Outside of the exceptions noted above, the article was most illuminating. I am sure that further work on this topic by the experimenter will prove profitable.

ALAN C. NICHOLS
Assistant Professor
University of California
at Santa Barbara

Religious Program Preferences Questioned

To the Editor:

Mr. Casmir's interesting report on the Los Angeles telephone survey of religious radio-television program preferences raises several questions:

(1) How reliable are the findings? "One of the first questions asked of the subjects was concerned with their religious faith." Isn't it possible that this colored succeeding questions? The figures concerning church-going are suspiciously high. The entire sample is divided among Protestants, Catholics, and Jews, making no provision for persons uncommitted to any of the three faiths. All who could not identify themselves as Roman Catholics or Jews probably accepted the classification "Protestant," diluting the meaning of that designation.

(2) How valid is the conclusion? Mr. Casmir evidently regards the survey as evidence that religious broadcasts are ineffective in reaching persons unreached by the churches. Yet among 206 occasional and non-church-goers 107 listened either "regularly" or "some" to religious programs. This is a much better record of "outreach" than any other activity of the church. It is not even bad in terms of broadcasting where research has revealed how operative is the principle of self-selection, whereby most of the listeners to opera already appreciate opera, most viewers of boxing are already ring addicts and so forth.

Mr. Casmir is correct, of course, in saying that the religious radio and television is not representative of universality although the Parker-Barry-Smythe conclusion in this respect was based primarily on age, sex, and economic status data which were not included in the Los Angeles study.

(3) One last, peripheral but perplexing question: What could possibly be the reason for the difference between Roman Catholic preference for radio (more than 7 to 1) and Protestant preference for television (almost 3 to 2)?

This letter is not intended as a defense of current religious broadcasting, much of which is appalling. With careful interpretation more studies of the type undertaken in Los Angeles have a contribution to make.

JOHN W. BACHMAN
Professor of Practical Theology
Union Theological Seminary
New York 27, N. Y.

To Generalize or To Presume . . .

To the Editor:

This is in response to the article by Moser, O'Neill, and Oyer, "Effects of Test-Format on Listener Response." The authors maintain in the introduction that "there can be no generalization about a most suitable test format." Then they proceeded with an "evaluation of various test forms commonly employed in speech reception measurement with a view toward determination of nonchance response set." Does not the purpose of the latter quote (and the study) deny the point of view expressed in the former quote?

I would also like to raise another question which seems quite significant to this study, as well as other similar investigations. How far is it safe to proceed with presumptions ("It is presumed that such a pattern of response, etc.) and inferences (The obvious inference . . . is that such a tendency might be more pronounced, etc.) about the responses of listeners to auditory stimuli when no auditory stimuli are presented? It might well be that listeners are more (or less) influenced by test format (visual cues) in the absence of associated auditory signals. But to assume that listeners "operating at or close to the cutoff point of stimulus reception" are influenced significantly by test format seems to constitute an indictment of either the listeners or threshold measurement procedures in general.

GEORGE J. HARBOLD
Audiologist
U. S. Naval School of Aviation Medicine
Pensacola, Florida

Three Steps Toward Fulfillment

To the Editor:

The article by A. Craig Baird, "Discussion and Debate in the Space Age," which appeared in the Spring 1959 issue was especially timely and valuable. Those of us who teach speech and particularly those who work with discussion and debate should be grateful to Professor Baird for a thoughtful and thought-provoking statement of the urgent need for the development of the skills involved in discussion and debate. Since most of us would be in substantial agreement with his thesis, it seems to me that as teachers of speech we should turn our attention to ways of implementing his stated goals.

In my opinion three steps should be taken within the framework of our present extracurricular programs in discussion and debate.

(1) We should make discussion and debate popular and attractive activities. There is little question but that the popularity of debate for audiences has diminished almost to zero. I urge the use of special types of debate and discussion as a means of regaining some of the lost popularity. Cross-examination debates, discussions with active forum periods—in fact, the use of any of dozens of the newly developed special forms—will stimulate thought and participation on the part of audiences. And more basic, the use of these forms will assist in getting people to come to hear discussions and debates on pertinent problems.

(2) We should see to it that our debaters and discussants have opportunities to debate and discuss a great variety of public questions. Let us not be content with one nationally selected debate proposition and one discussion question. Let us rather give our students the experience and knowledge which come with working carefully and systematically on five or six topics—or more—each year.

(3) We should offer the opportunity to participate in extracurricular debate and discussion to as many students as we can. Because of the reasons Professor Baird discusses, we no longer should restrict our debate team to the eight or ten debaters who can win the most tournaments. Our goal should be to provide training for all interested students in the important skills of effective discussion and debate.

The points discussed here can easily become integral parts of our present forensic programs—indeed, they are already incorporated in many high school and college programs. If we are to realize the values Professor Baird has so well enunciated, we must be prepared to alter procedures which in this age of Sputniks, Explorers and moon rockets are as outmoded as the biplane of World War I.

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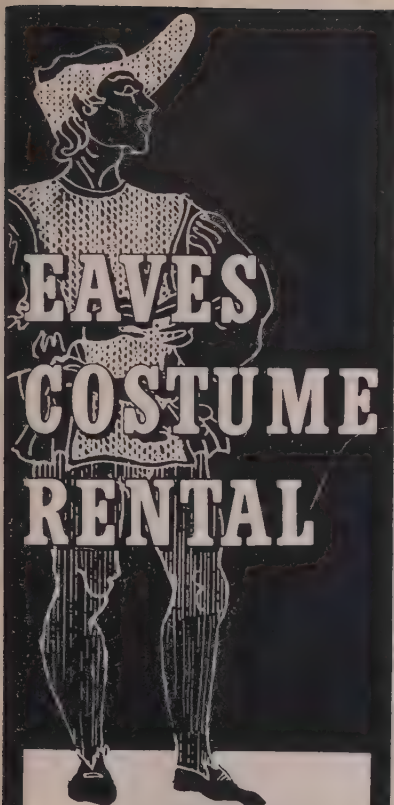
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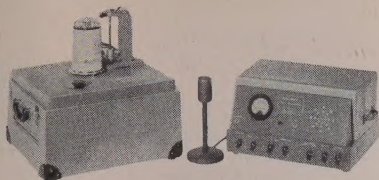
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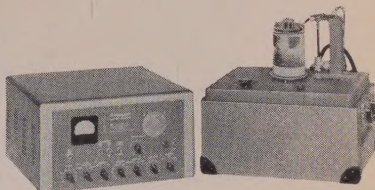
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